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# THE WAR IN MAPS



# THE WAR IN MAPS

AN ATLAS OF

*The New York Times*

MAPS

TEXT BY FRANCIS BROWN

MAPS BY EMIL HERLIN

NEW YORK • LONDON • TORONTO

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# PREFACE

GLOBAL WAR strains geographical knowledge and understanding. Not only does it demand specific knowledge of the location of countries, of seas and rivers and mountain ranges; it requires appreciation of strategical relationships, of how a blow struck in one quarter of the world can affect military operations in another quarter thousands of miles away. Commanders in global war are faced with the dilemma whether to concentrate their strength in one vital area or to distribute it around the earth. Vast distances acquire new meaning in terms of supply, and before the instruments of modern warfare the traditional isolation of nations evaporates. All become potential battlegrounds.

Maps thus become essential to the understanding of global war and its problems. In meeting that need *The New York Times* has been a leader. It has published regularly maps that illuminate and dramatize the course of the war. These maps have been varied. Some have underlined political change. Others have defined strategic industrial areas and communications systems. Still others have dramatized military campaigns and the war at sea. A good many maps that originally appeared in *The New York Times* now reappear, often considerably revised, in *The War in Maps*. Others have been drawn especially for this book. The accompanying text serves as background and more complete explanation for the war story the maps tell.

F. B.

E. H.

New York  
August 1942



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THE WAR  
IN MAPS



# A BACKDROP TO WAR

'NO OTHER MEANS is left to me than to meet force with force.' With those words Adolf Hitler on September 1, 1939, threw down the challenge to all powers that would curb Nazi Germany in the quest for Lebensraum, and sent the German armies slashing into Poland. Europe had been plunged into its second great war in a quarter century.

The conflict, long feared, spread like a plague until what had been ostensibly a quarrel between neighbors involved all Europe, all the world. Never had mankind known a struggle so titanic. As the peoples of the earth, grouped as the United Nations or the Axis powers, battered one another the war became indeed a battle of Armageddon.

Resistance to steady German aggression against weaker states had been the apparent cause of the storm that broke upon the world that September morning in 1939, but the causes went far deeper. Social forces working slowly, noiselessly, beneath the surface, their existence only half suspected or understood, had aided in producing the explosion. Political systems were at stake. A way of life had been challenged and a vision of an even better way had been threatened.

The roots of the trouble ran directly to the First World War and its settlement at Versailles—so directly that it might be said the two conflicts were one and that at Versailles in 1919 had been signed not a peace but a truce. The First World War, in breaking Europe's more than forty years of peace, had ended with a continent politically disrupted and economically all but broken. Revolutions had upset the social equilibrium that, however precariously, had prevailed before the war. The economic distress that ensued when fighting halted set the seal to the breakdown of the old order. Not only did the captains and the kings depart. The stability and the assurance of the middle class were destroyed, and simultaneously the submerged groups, like the third estate on the eve of the French Revolution, glimpsed faintly,

often briefly, the promise of exchanging nothing for something.

The peacemakers at Versailles, if their actions spoke truly, did not always sense what had happened and was happening. Instead, they pushed ahead with a redrawing of the map of Europe that would make possible a return of political stability and of a social order similar to that prevailing before the lights went out in 1914. The difference would be found largely in the subordination of Germany and the disappearance of the historic Austro-Hungarian Empire. On that foundation the peace was to be laid. The Treaties of Versailles embodied the new version of the Continental system.

Germany, her colonies in Africa and Asia snipped from her, shorn of military and naval power, her European borders shrunken, was placed under surveillance, temporary as it proved, of the victors, and obliged to accept painful restrictions on her economic life. Upon the German Reich was put the stigma of both war guilt and defeat. Both rankled in the hearts of a people whose morale seemed broken as they gave themselves over to rival political philosophies that weakened further the social fabric.

Austria-Hungary, a polyglot nation held together by the Habsburg dynasty, dissolved when revolution sent the Habsburgs scurrying into exile. At the core of what had been an empire remained the small independent German republic of Austria and Hungary, the Magyar kingdom without a king. Surrounding them were 'Succession States' that embodied partly the nationalistic ambitions of the peoples formerly ruled by the Empire. In forming these states the Versailles map-makers did violence often to natural economic ties and to national sentiments, and thus left to the future a legacy of troubles. Some of the Succession States were wholly new: Czechoslovakia, composed of former Habsburg territories; and Poland, formed from provinces of Austria-Hungary, Germany, and Russia. Some were nations enlarged at the expense of the defeated: Yugoslavia, the former Serbia, was given regions that had been Austro-Hungarian; and Rumania benefited at Hungary's expense.

The post-war settlements included a *cordon sanitaire* along the

Baltic—the newly created nations of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, which with Finland might help to preserve Western Europe from the communism that revolution had brought to Russia. As for Russia herself, that colossus, often more Asiatic than European, ceased for the moment to have a part in the concert of the powers.

To crown the post-war system the League of Nations was created. It embodied the hopes of men that wars could henceforth be averted and that disputes might be settled around the council table or in a world court. In practice the League realized few of the hopes. Power politics tended to rule its acts and decisions. Britain and France used the League when it suited; when it did not, they fell back upon the traditional game of diplomacy with its threats and bluffs and national interests. The ultimate result might have been foreseen: breakdown of the international system.

Major wars are followed by periods of painful reconstruction, and the aftermath of the First World War was one of them. Economic life, disjointed by the war and the peace, found hard a return to normal. On the Continent political unrest was general and stable government was rare. In France the successive ministries were alarmingly short-lived. The new German Republic never established itself firmly. Other nations after brief experiments in democracy gave themselves over to dictatorship.

Social ferment characterized the Continent. Karl Marx, writing at the time of the 1848 upheavals, had said: 'There is a spectre haunting Europe.' That spectre of socialist revolution haunted also the Europe of the nineteen twenties and thirties, for the Russian Revolution had loosed new ideas upon the world. The promise of communism, whether true or false, loomed large before men and women struggling against post-war poverty. The threat of communism loomed perhaps still larger before those more fortunately placed. Particularly in post-war Europe the clash between threat and promise provided overtones for a tragic symphony.

The Russian experiment caught human imagination, for in the vastness of the Soviet Union a wholly new order was being built. Capital-

ism was banished. A classless society was the ideal. Much that happened in Russia's half-legendary cities and on her distant steppes was never disclosed. Nor did the West always fully comprehend what was revealed. Yet gradually the Soviet Union, at first a pariah in a capitalistic world, was accepted in the concert of the powers. Suspicions remained. Even diplomatic partnership could not dispel capitalist dislike for communism, or communist dislike for capitalism.

One of the dominating facts of the post-war period was the Russian building of a communist State. Parallel to it was the rise of fascism. Fascism fought communism, although the two had a superficial similarity in their use of dictatorial government, their suppression of democratic liberties, their disinterest in the individual. It was to counter communism that the fascists in 1922 came to power in Italy, and as a bulwark of capitalism, although a closely controlled and regimented capitalism, fascism built itself a place in history.

Aggressive nationalism and militarism belonged to all fascists. They held out to the masses a promise of happier days, to be realized immediately in the form of social benefits and more distantly in the form of larger living when the nation had won access to rich colonies or rich neighbors. Italy's fascists, strengthening the military arm the while, agitated for a new Roman Empire. Germany's Nazis, when in 1933 their rule began, started at once to build quickly and efficiently a strong nation that could wipe out the work of Versailles and achieve the historic German goal of a place in the sun.

Communism challenged capitalism, but fascism challenged both traditional capitalism and democracy. There was no doubt that capitalism in the democratic world was changing, that the old ideal of *laissez-faire* had been discarded, but men still clung to the belief that individual enterprise as such could, with alterations, be maintained. It could be under neither communism nor fascism.

The communist threat to democracy might be just as real, although Russian communists talked of self-government, but the fact remained that communism was not so aggressive as fascism in attacking democracy. For fascists democracy was something degenerate. They ex-

pressed frequently their contempt for democratic government. By word and deed they scorned the freedoms of speech and press, of assembly and worship. The matter might have ended there. It did not. When the fascist powers set forth on conquest, the challenge and threat to democracy became not a theory but a situation, although the democratic powers were slow to recognize what was happening.

Complacency was in part to blame, for the democracies, rich, powerful, did not understand how they could be challenged. The British Commonwealth, the French Republic with its colonial empire, the United States—these three with their allies and satellites dominated the earth and its riches. The United States held itself aloof from Britain and France. The British and French often fell out, though maintaining a degree of community of interest. All had a good deal in common, and all had a willingness to get along with the fascist states as well as possible while holding Russia at arm's length.

The democracies with their wealth represented the 'have' nations. Germany and Italy represented the 'have-nots,' and to these European 'have-nots' had to be added one in Asia, Japan. In 1931, it seemed unlikely that the three great 'have-nots' would ever make common cause in the effort to become 'haves.' In that year, however, Japan, by suddenly invading Manchuria, set the pattern for fascist aggression and unleashed a train of events that led ultimately to the Axis alliance of Germany, Italy, and Japan.

The Manchurian incident, which the United States would like to have halted but, lacking British support, could only denounce, was closed when the League of Nations, protesting shrilly, showed itself powerless to punish or prevent Japan's aggression. The powder train had been laid, for henceforth international treaties and conventions were to be flouted whenever it suited the aggressor nations. Explosions soon followed one another rapidly.

Italy in 1935 took up the quest for new domain by invading the East African empire of Ethiopia. The powers protested. The League of Nations voted sanctions against Italy, but these penalties were not well enforced and the war went on until it was possible to proclaim

the king of Italy Emperor of Ethiopia. The League of Nations had once more lost prestige. Once again aggression had proved profitable.

In the midst of the Ethiopian crisis, Adolf Hitler tore up one of the clauses of the Versailles treaty by sending German troops on March 7, 1936, into the Rhineland, which the treaty had demilitarized. The League of Nations Council condemned the German action, but France, the nation most concerned, and Britain did nothing. Nor did they take strong action when in July 1936 civil war broke out in Spain. The Insurgents—the fascists—had German and Italian support, and the Loyalists had some aid from Russia, yet none of the democracies sought to stem the tide of fascism, however much fascist control of Spain might mean strategically should there be war in Europe.

The threat of war was coming closer. It had long been no secret that Germany was rearming, despite treaty restrictions to the contrary. Italy and Germany were binding their association. Opposed to them, Britain and France were drawing together and rearming, slowly. There was war talk, although there was also talk that war could be avoided; and always the German *Reichsfuehrer* suggested that his next demand would be his last one, only grant that and he would seek nothing more.

In March 1938, the Nazis seized the independent republic of Austria, Hitler's native land. There was another crisis. Once again Britain and France were in no position to act effectively, nor were they any more prepared when in the summer of 1938 Hitler threatened the Republic of Czechoslovakia, demanding cession of its German areas—the Sudetenland—with their strategic defenses. The diplomats hustled. Notes were exchanged. Russia, allied to Czechoslovakia and also close to France, apparently was willing to assist if a war against Germany was needed to save the Czechs. War proved unnecessary. At Munich in September 1938 Britain and France forced the Czechs to cede the Sudetenland. Russia, uninvited, had been absent from the Munich meeting.

The sands were now running fast, for though Neville Chamberlain,

the British Prime Minister, had expressed the hope that Munich meant 'peace in our time,' military preparations were speeding up everywhere. In March 1939 the Nazis occupied the dismembered Czechoslovak state. To Britain and France it was notice that worse might come, that the policy of appeasing Hitler had failed. There was sudden Allied diplomatic activity in an attempt to isolate the Nazis and their Italian partners. Bonds were drawn between Poland and the Allies. Guarantees were given Rumania and Greece. An understanding was sought with Russia.

Now the legacy of the years of suspicion was cashed. Neither Britain nor France wholly trusted the Soviet Union. The distrust was returned. Negotiations were apparently handled badly; finally they foundered, on what rock a diplomatic secret. The climax was sensational. While hope still persisted that an agreement could be found, the Soviet Union signed a non-aggression pact with Germany. Destined to last less than two years, its existence allowed the Germans to march against Poland secure in the knowledge that Russia would keep the peace.

It seemed a distant war when it began, and the immediate issue had seemed scarcely worth a war, for Germany was striking again at a Versailles settlement—the Free City of Danzig and the Polish Corridor that divided East Prussia from the Reich proper—and such acts of violence had happened before without war. Few foresaw how far the fighting would spread or how quickly; how Scandinavia, at peace since the years of Napoleon, would be engulfed equally with the Balkans, which had known war always. The collapse of France, regarded as one of the greatest of military powers, the German attack upon Russia that made Britain and the Soviet Union allies, Japan's premeditated assault upon the United States, Britain, and The Netherlands—none of that appeared possible or probable on the morning the Nazi legions crossed the frontier into Poland.

All that came to pass; and when on December 7, 1941, Japan struck at Britain and the United States, what had been largely a European struggle expanded into a war of the world. Strategy was now

global. Commanders thought no longer in terms of regions and nations but in terms of continents and of all the seas that lie between. The resources of the world and much of its manpower were marshalled for a supreme test of military might.

The spreading conflict swept away old concepts of empire and class and economic dominion. All races were involved, all classes, all degrees of power and place, and in the very fact of common participation lay seeds of a new order certain to resemble little the order that had been. The course of war destroyed a way of life, whether that destruction resulted from conquest or from the economic cost consequent upon maintaining armed hosts for battle. Towns and cities were laid waste by bombs and shells and fire. The social structure was leveled by the privations of war and its weight of spending, and where the leveling process remained incomplete, the promise of its completion stood forth. The war of the world spelled world revolution.

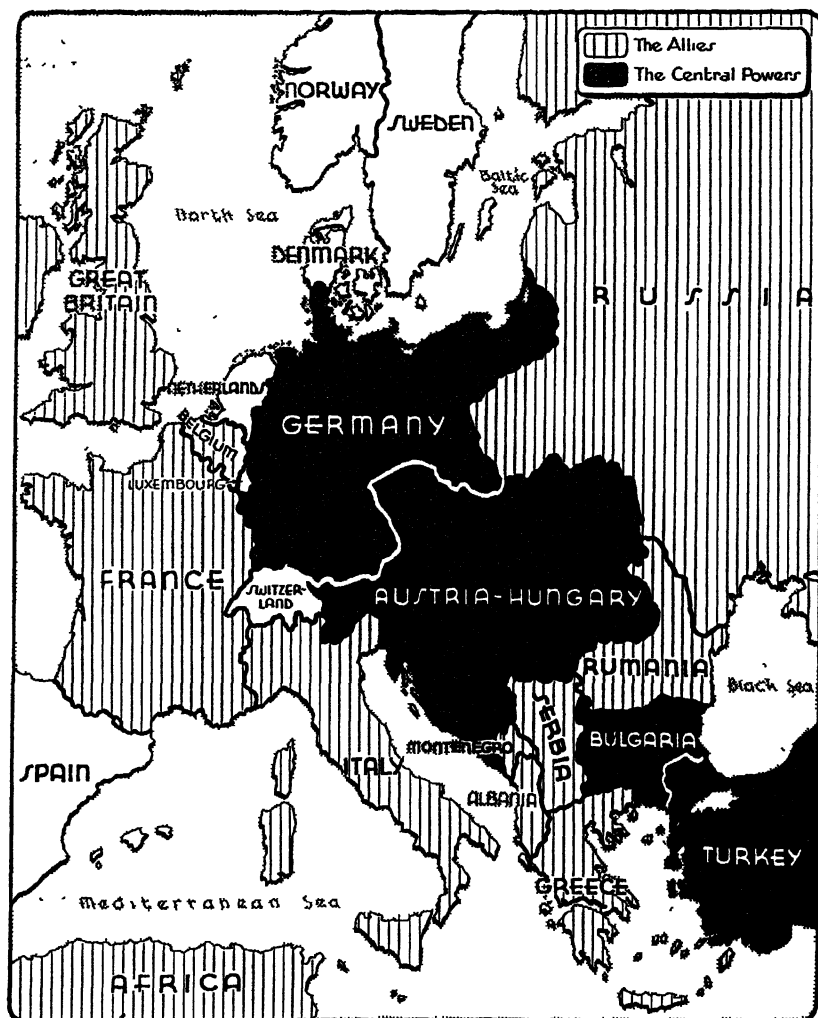
Slowly the fact of revolution was being realized, however reluctantly accepted. On the outcome of the war depended the nature of the civilization the revolution would inaugurate. To decide that nature the nations battled, for the outlines were becoming clearer.

An Axis victory would cast the future in a mold unbearable and unthinkable for the United Nations. The form had been many times described in writings and speeches of the Nazis and their Axis partners. In the future order under Axis dispensation there would be a master folk—the conquerors—who would rule, and the lesser breeds who would toil without the law. All dignity of man and essential equality would disappear in a world organized on a basis of the political and economic slavery of the many by the few.

The form in miniature had been disclosed wherever the Axis extended its conquests. In Norway and the Low Countries, in France, in the Balkans, in China men bent low beneath the Axis yoke, their lives, their possessions, their hopes in thrall. Only defeat of the Axis would restore the freedom many of the unfortunates had once held and the promise of freedom many had foreseen.

To prevent the Axis from achieving its aims the United Nations were fighting. Their existence was in jeopardy. More than that was at stake. 'We are fighting for a new world,' Harry L. Hopkins said on the first anniversary of Germany's attack upon Russia, and he told of the world he would make. 'There can be no real freedom,' he said, 'without economic freedom. The world can be freed from the economic oppressions that have nourished misery among hundreds of millions of people. There is enough wheat to feed the world; there is enough stone and brick and lumber to house the world; there is enough cotton and wool to clothe the whole human family . . . No Utopia was ever won without a struggle, and the struggle to abolish poverty in the world, to attain a just and lasting peace, to eliminate racial hatreds, is a struggle to which every freedom-loving person can whole-heartedly subscribe.'

Not all among the United Nations had seen that vision when the war began. More and more saw it, strove to make it real, as the conflict widened and progressed. It was a vision to sustain the faltering in the dark hours that came and to spur the brave onward to greater deeds of valor. To the war efforts of the United Nations the vision gave purpose and deep meaning as in blood and tragedy the greatest conflict of all times closed its third year.

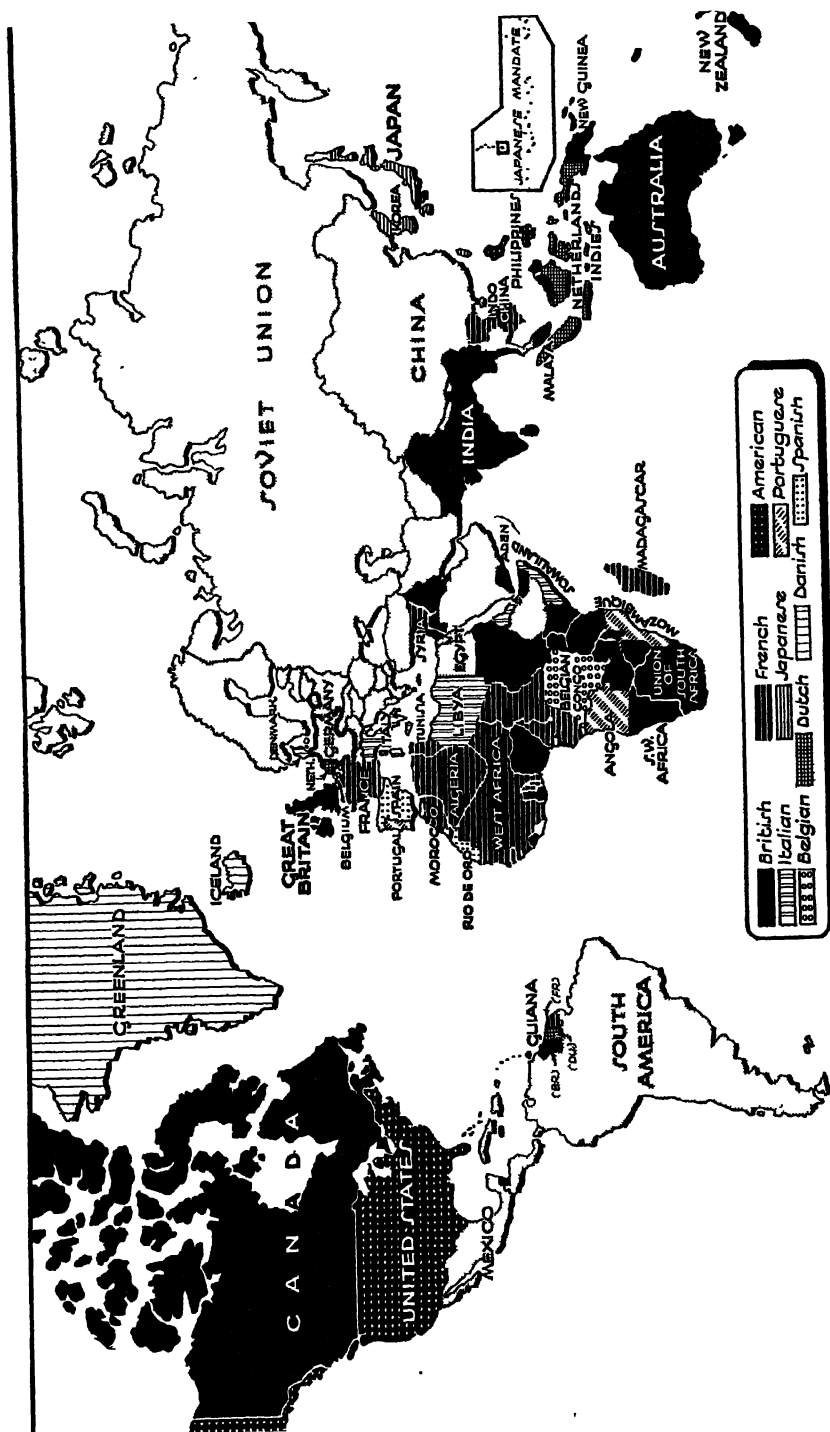


# WORLD WAR I

THE EUROPE to which war came in 1914 was a continent divided largely among six great nations—Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia. Their rivalries and ambitions had long forecast future conflict. Germany, for example, wanted to push her influence to the Middle East, a desire that ran counter to British and Russian policies. Russia wanted to reach Constantinople, but to do so would be against the ambitions of both Germany and Austria-Hungary. The powers conflicted in trade. Their colonial aspirations were in opposition. Ultimately explosion occurred.

This First World War found Europe divided into two principal camps. On one side were Germany and Austria-Hungary, the Central Powers, and to that side eventually Turkey and Bulgaria adhered. On the other was the Triple Entente—Britain, France, and Russia—which was joined by Belgium, Serbia, Montenegro, Japan, Italy, Rumania, Greece, and, before the war had ended, by the United States and several lesser countries.

The conflict surpassed any the world at the time had known. To wage it on land, at sea, and in the air more than 65,000,000 men were mobilized. More than half of these were listed on the final rolls as casualties. More than 8,500,000 died or were killed in battle. How many civilians perished in the conflict, as a result of bombardments, disease, or starvation, none ever knew. The costs of the war in terms of property destroyed, expenditures for arms, lost business could never be adequately calculated.



## 2 THE WORLD OF VERSAILLES

PEACEMAKERS who were also mapmakers sat around green baize-covered tables in French palaces outside Paris. The year was 1919. New boundaries had to be drawn as part of the World War settlement. Colonial territories had to be distributed. Of the imperial powers, Britain and France benefited most from the mapmaking. Japan improved her position slightly. Germany was the chief loser. For twenty years the arrangement lasted without fundamental change.

The distribution of territory did not, so far as colonies were concerned, give title in fee simple. Instead, possession depended upon a 'mandate,' a sort of deed which made the ruling power responsible to the League of Nations for what happened in the territory. In practice, however, the mandate system proved little different from actual ownership. The historic colonial system was perpetuated.

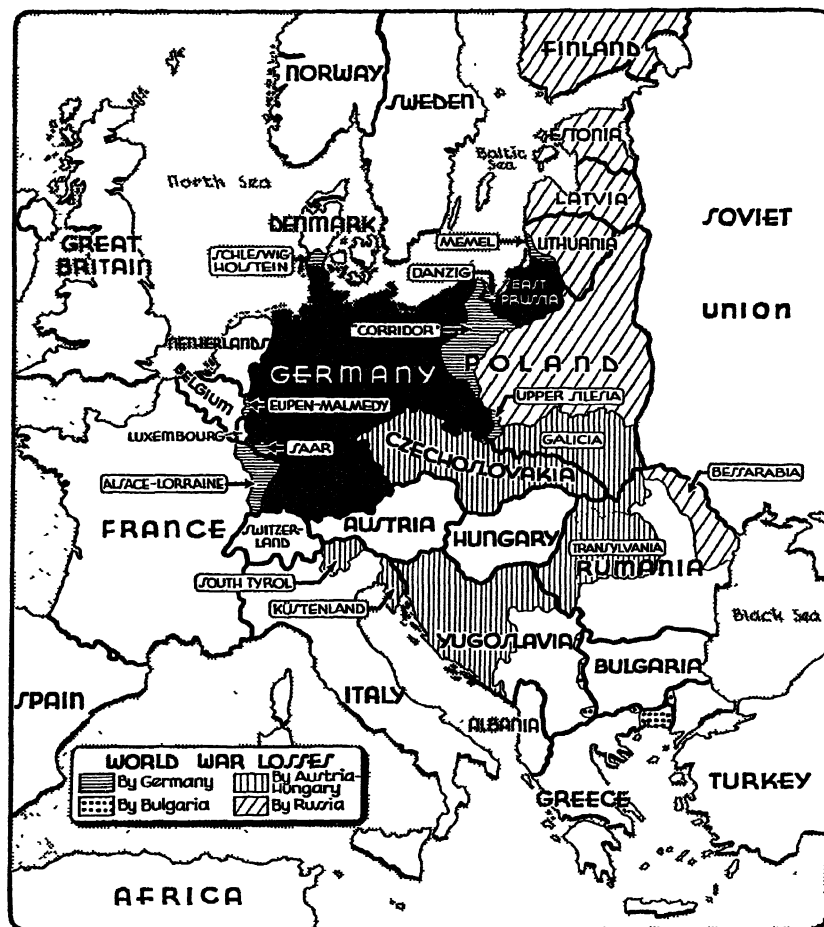
The world's population was estimated at close to 2,000,000,000 and its land area at 57,510,000 square miles. If the British Dominions as well as colonies and

mandates were included, Britain ruled nearly a quarter of the earth—13,290,634 square miles—and a quarter of the population—486,733,541 persons.

None of the other imperial powers approximated Britain in size, though France, ruling 4,830,000 square miles, came second in terms of area. Her total population approximated 106,000,000.

Some of the lesser nations had important colonial possessions, ownership running back often to the age of discovery. The Netherlands, for example, had colonies in both the East and West Indies whose area totaled more than 735,000 square miles with a population exceeding 50,000,000.

The imperial picture had importance in the sense that possession of colonies gave ready access to sources of raw materials, provided markets for goods, supplied manpower in time of war. Germany, shorn of 1,000,000 square miles of colonies with a population of 12,000,000, did not forget the days when her flag had flown in Africa, Asia and the South Seas.



# EUROPE AFTER 1919

GERMANY after 1919 was 27,000 square miles smaller than she had been in 1914, and had 6,500,000 fewer persons among her population. The peace settlement had cut away Alsace-Lorraine, which had been French until 1871, parts of Schleswig-Holstein, Upper Silesia, and East Prussia. Eupen and Malmédy had gone to Belgium. The old Hanseatic city of Danzig had been made a 'free city' under the League of Nations in order to provide the new republic of Poland with an outlet to the Baltic.

Out of the ruins of the Austro-Hungarian Empire came the new republic of Czechoslovakia. The new Yugoslavia received Habsburg territories and Rumania acquired the old Hungarian province of Transylvania. South Tyrol and Küstenland (Istria) were ceded to Italy.

Russia, weakened by revolution, something of an outcast among the powers, suffered severe territorial pruning. The regions along the Baltic, Russian since the eighteenth century, became the independent nations of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. Poland was built largely of territory the czars had long ruled. Finland broke away to set up as an independent nation. Rumania seized Russian Bessarabia.

In the Balkans, in addition to the territorial changes resulting from the fall of Austria-Hungary, there were other new borders drawn. Montenegro was incorporated in Yugoslavia. Bulgaria lost area to Yugoslavia and Greece.

The principle of 'self-determination,' of nationality, guided many of these settlements. Desire for national aggrandizement was also present. In many instances, the victors flouted national pride and historic traditions. They forgot minorities. They broke natural economic alignments. The result was a Europe in which peace lacked stability, in which revenge was a common sentiment. The peacemakers like the legendary Cadmus had sown dragons' teeth.



# THE MARCH OF HITLER

THE HOHENZOLLERN German Reich in 1914 occupied 208,780 square miles of Europe. In this domain, a united nation since the days of Bismarck, lived 67,812,000 persons. Versailles reduced both area and population—to 181,500 square miles and 60,000,000 persons. Adolf Hitler made it his business to restore Germany's former grandeur. He did more than that, and by September 1939 *Reichsfuehrer* Hitler ruled a country greater than that of Wilhelm II. It sprawled across 259,000 square miles. It counted a population of 88,000,000.

Expansion had followed almost a time-table after the 1936 remilitarization of the Rhineland. On it appeared these significant dates: (1) March 12, 1938, the German nation of Austria was annexed, area 32,400 square miles, population 6,750,000; (2) October 1, 1938, the German-inhabited Sudetenland of Czechoslovakia annexed, area 10,800 square miles, population 3,500,000; (3) March 14, 1939, Czechoslovakia annexed, area 35,300 square miles, population 9,500,000; (4) March 22, 1939, Memelland annexed, area 1,100 square miles, population 152,000.

Hitler's march brought to the Reich not only area and population; it strengthened Germany's strategic position in Europe. Annexation of Austria and Czechoslovakia gave the Germans a commanding status in Central Europe. The shadow of Great Germany fell across the Balkans, fell dark across the Nazi partner, Italy. Poland, held in a German pincers, was isolated henceforth from possible aid from Central Europe. The annexations had upset forever the perilous balance of power achieved by the 1919 peacemakers. The Treaty of Versailles, so often denounced by the *Reichsfuehrer*, had been almost destroyed.



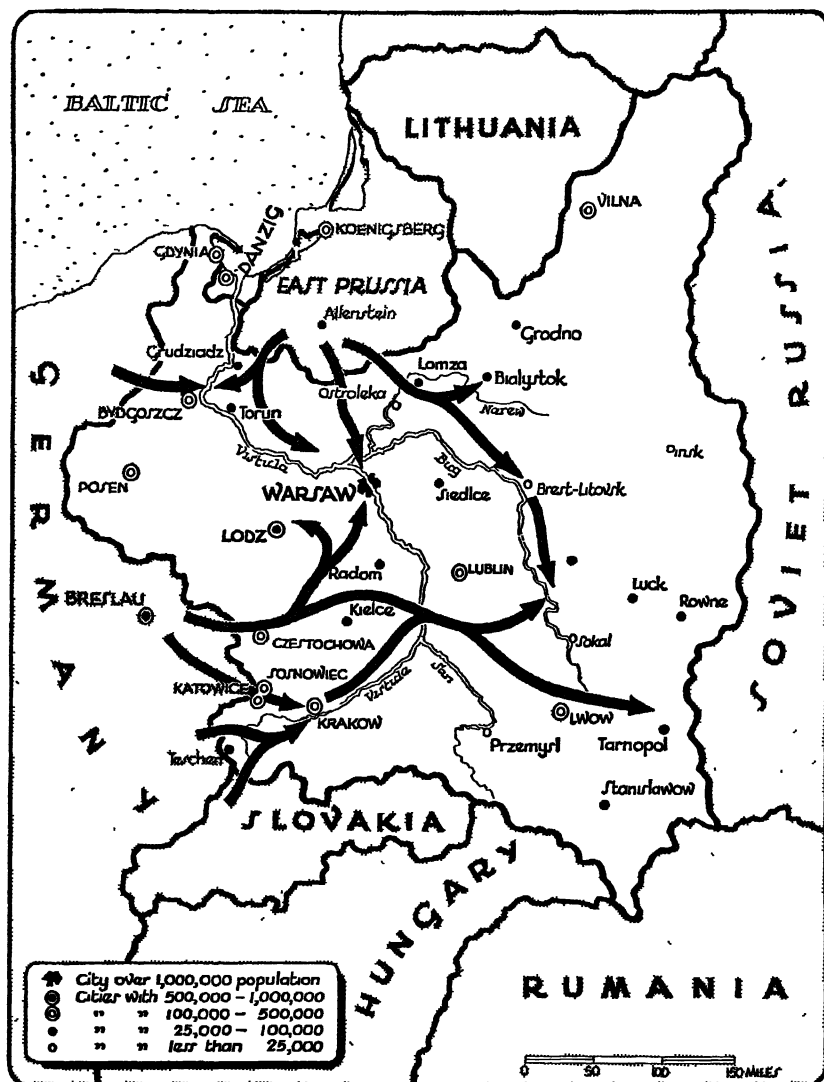
# SEPTEMBER 1939

GERMANY on September 3, 1939, when Britain and France declared war against her, was still a nation potentially isolated in the heart of Europe. Except for the pact of non-aggression with Russia, her position was not much different from what it had been in August 1914. In some respects it might not have seemed as good, for Germany, despite the Axis alliance with Italy, was fighting alone.

The belligerents were divided into Germany, a nation of 88,000,000, on the one hand, and, on the other, Britain, an empire of 486,733,541, France, an empire of 106,000,000, and Poland, a republic of 35,000,000. The weight of anti-German population alone seemed overwhelming. But in the months before war came to the Continent the Anglo-French allies had been seeking to isolate Germany both physically and diplomatically.

Guarantees of territorial integrity had been given to Rumania, the oil-rich land that the Nazis presumably needed to make their European order work; to Greece, with its geographically important position in the Eastern Mediterranean; and to Turkey, which held one of the keys to the Middle East. Yugoslavia was suspected to be anti-Axis and even Hungary had not been conceded to the Axis alignment.

How the opposing sides would match in a strictly military sense was in September 1939 a matter of differing opinions. Germany's strength was rated high, particularly in the air, although her army was thought to have been weakened considerably by successive purges in the higher ranks. The German fleet was negligible. Poland, her fleet unimportant, was self-confident as regards her army. France had an army generally conceded to be the world's best, however weak it might be in the air and in motorized equipment. Britain and France together had a naval force far superior to anything that could be mustered against them.



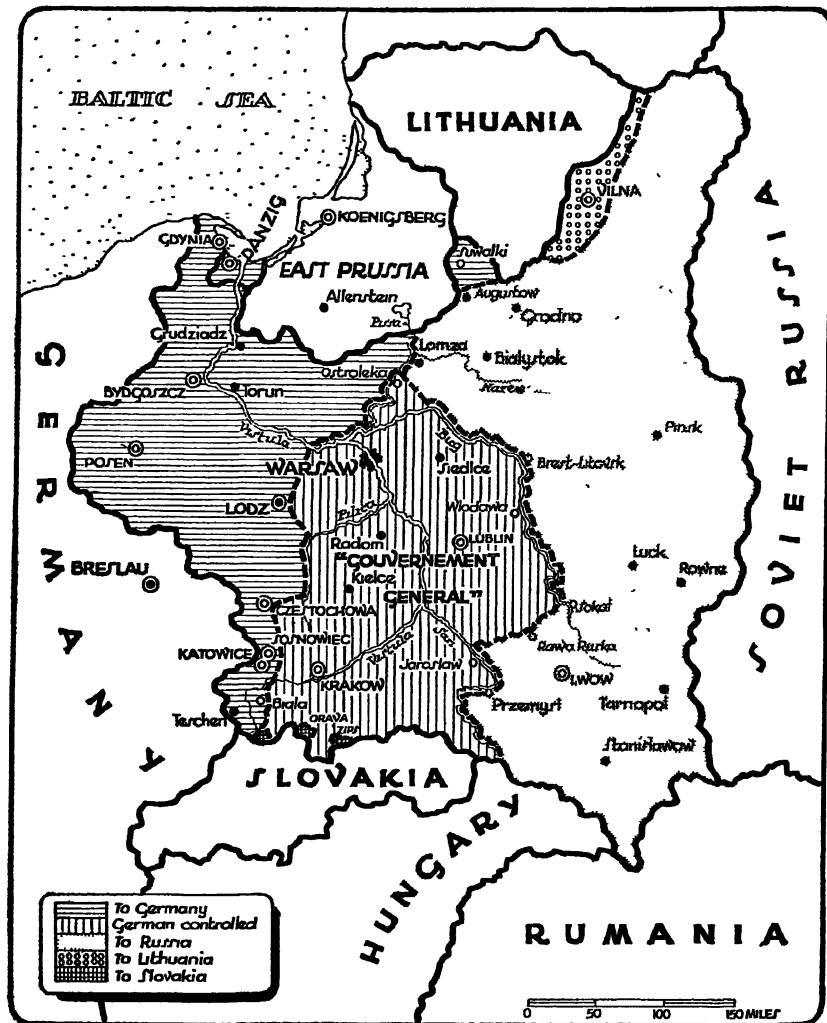
# BLITZKRIEG IN POLAND

GERMANY had a military surprise in store when her gray-green legions crossed into Poland on September 1, 1939, and her planes took the air to strike at Polish communications and vital war centers. The surprise came to be known as *Blitzkrieg*, lightning war, 1939 style. It entailed the massing of air power to bomb airdromes and railways, roads, cities. It entailed also the use of air power in close co-operation with motorized units that slashed rapidly into Poland in great pincers movements that cut up the Polish armies, isolated them and then destroyed them.

From Germany, from East Prussia, from what had been Czechoslovakia, the German armies struck in great co-ordinated offensives and drives. The Poles, who had counted on the fall rains to make the poor Polish highways impassable to tanks and motorized units, were overwhelmed. No rain fell. Over the hard, dry terrain the Germans drove. Within ten days, forces from East Prussia and from Germany proper had cut the Polish Corridor, breaking Poland's connection with the sea. Other forces had overrun much of the Polish industrial regions in southern Poland. Warsaw, the capital city, was being encircled and, already savagely bombed from the air, was soon to be besieged.

Lightning war had always been popular with German military leaders. It was lightning war that brought Prussia victory over Austria in 1866 and over France four years later. The modern theory of *Blitzkrieg* with its use of planes and tanks and motorized columns had been developed by the Italian general Douhet.

The Germans threw about 1,700,000 men, well trained and well equipped, against the Poles, who could muster at most only about 600,000. The Polish Army never completed its mobilization, so rapidly did the Germans move. Poorly prepared, equipped with few planes or tanks, the Poles resisted valiantly, retreated when possible, and hoped that a last stand might be made in eastern Poland where the Pripet Marshes offered some natural defense.

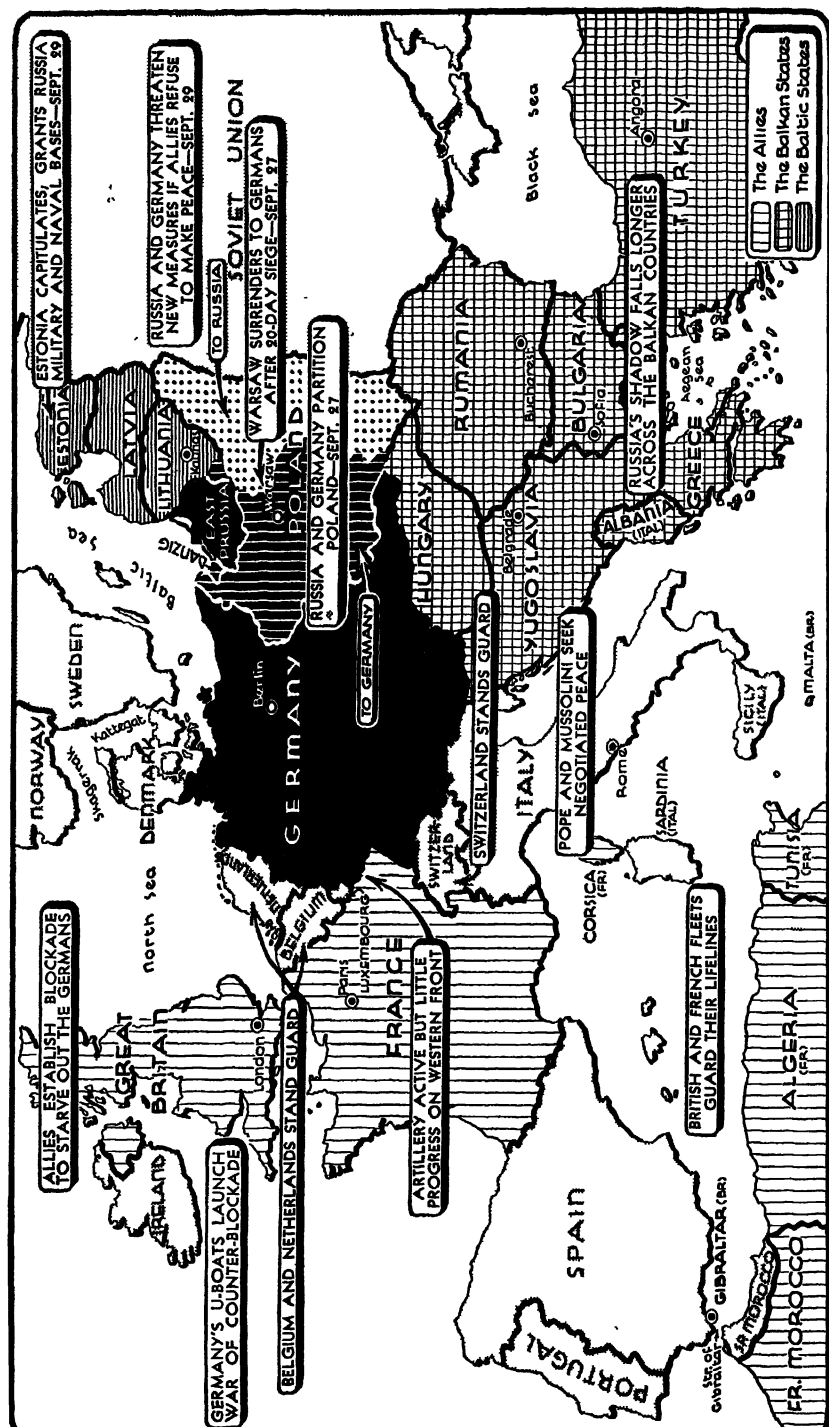


# THE POLISH PARTITION

THE POLISH STATE was gasping for life when dawn broke on September 17, 1939. Sixteen days had been enough to break the nation that Pilsudski and the rest had built. Yet Warsaw still held out. There was some hope remaining. It all proved fallacious, for in that dawn—it was a Sunday—tanks rumbled into Poland from the east and planes appeared overhead. Russia was administering the *coup de grâce*. Except for mopping up, the war in Poland was soon over. It had lasted but three weeks.

The Polish state was divided between Germany and Russia—the fourth partition in Polish history. Austria, Prussia, and Russia had been the benefactors of the successive partitions that in the eighteenth century destroyed the ancient kingdom of Poland. Now the heirs of those older states destroyed the modern Poland.

Germany annexed the Free City of Danzig and 32,000 square miles of Poland, thus linking East Prussia to the Reich, and set up an anomalous area called the *Gouvernement Général*, a purely Polish region embracing about 39,000 square miles. Russia took 75,000 square miles of eastern Poland. Small territorial concessions were made to Lithuania and to German-protected Slovakia.



ALLIES ESTABLISH BLOCKADE TO STARVE OUT THE GERMANS

GERMANY'S U-BOATS LAUNCH WAR OF COUNTER-BLOCKADE

BELGIUM AND NETHERLANDS STAND GUARD

FRANCE  
ARTILLERY ACTIVE BUT LITTLE PROGRESS ON WESTERN FRONT

TO GERMANY

RUSSIA AND GERMANY PARTITION POLAND—SEPT. 27

WARSAW SURRENDERS TO GERMANS AFTER 20-DAY SIEGE—SEPT. 27

TO RUSSIA

RUSSIA AND GERMANY THREATEN NEW MEASURES IF ALLIES REFUSE TO MAKE PEACE—SEPT. 29

ESTONIA CAPITULATES, GRANTS RUSSIA MILITARY AND NAVAL BASES—SEPT. 29

POPE AND MUSSOLINI SEEK NEGOTIATED PEACE

BRITISH AND FRENCH FLEETS GUARD THEIR LIFELINES

RUSSIA'S SHADOW FALLS LONGER ACROSS THE BALKAN COUNTRIES

The Allies  
The Balkan States  
The Baltic States

# 8 FOUR WEEKS OF WAR

THE FALL OF POLAND shook the world, for not only was German strength revealed. Russia was shown to be apparently on the aggressive, and an American cartoonist drew the hammer and sickle in the war clouds over Europe. War plans of Britain and France, so far as they had included support for the Polish ally, had gone awry. Allied prestige suffered accordingly. The lesser nations grew jittery, and even those with British guarantees looked uncertainly toward the months ahead.

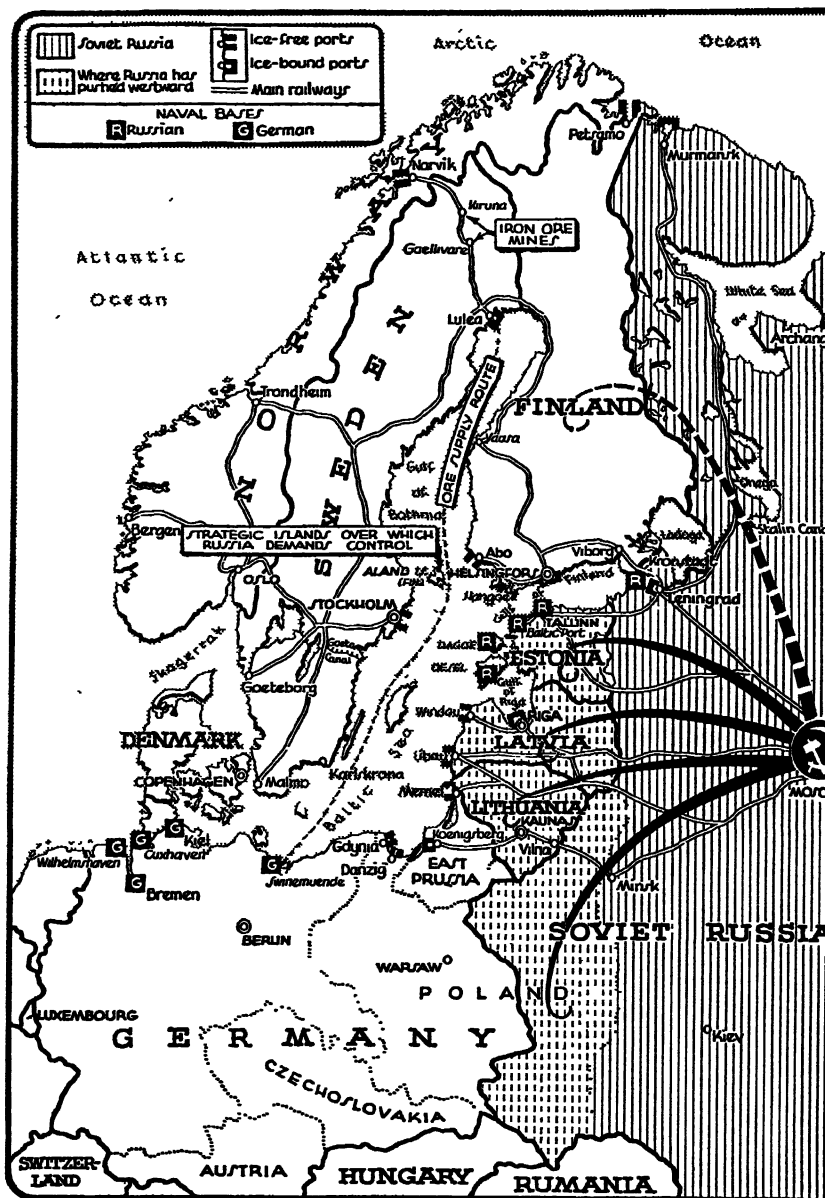
The guns cooled in Poland. Along the Franco-German boundary there was skirmishing. At sea the U-boats were out, but the British seemed confident the submarine threat could be met. Blockade was tightening around the Continent, though the leaks were many; and from Italy, still a non-belligerent, came

reports that both the Pope and Il Duce hoped for a negotiated peace.

Germany, it was foreseen, might do one of two things: (1) strike west at France, perhaps through the Low Countries, which had mobilized against possible attack; (2) pursue peaceful penetration of the Balkans with a view to strengthening her resources in raw materials. The second appeared the more likely.

Over all the Continent Russia loomed larger than at any time since the czars, for after nearly two decades of peace, the Russians had apparently resumed their historic drive toward the west. The Polish partition had been an omen. All nations which had once belonged in whole or in part to Russia waited fearfully to learn whether Joseph Stalin was indeed the heir of Peter the Great and Catherine.

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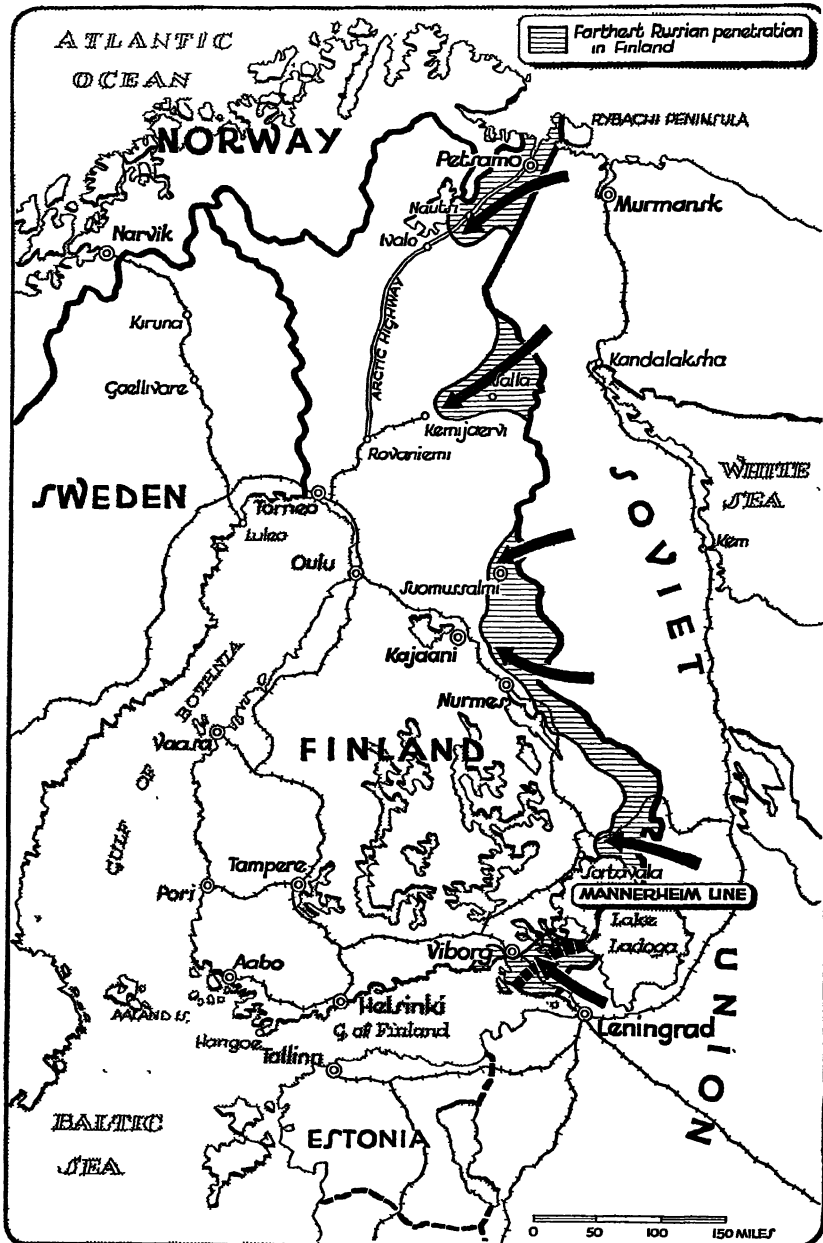


# EXPANDING RUSSIA

A PLANE circled above the Moscow airport on September 27, 1939, landed. No guard of honor was drawn up. No band was playing. From the plane stepped the Foreign Minister of Estonia. His little post-war republic was in trouble. He had been summoned to Moscow as Russia, following the Polish partition, resumed her push to the West.

Peter the Great and his successors had been exponents of that policy in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. They had laid down the principles that Russia must seek windows on the Western World and ice-free ports. The Romanoffs had reached the Baltic. They had driven toward the Dardanelles. The First World War and the revolution halted that ancient mission and the World War peacemakers had approved arrangements which seemed to shut off Russia from Western Europe. The new republics of Finland, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania had been just part of that arrangement. Rumania's seizure of the Dniester province of Bessarabia had fitted the pattern. Now the course had been run.

To the Estonian Foreign Minister the Soviet Union presented an ultimatum that forecast a vassal status for the little republic. Air and naval bases were to be granted to the Russians; close military and trade relations were to be accepted. The Estonians bowed before might, and their submission was followed soon by Latvia and Lithuania. Russia had pushed again to the Baltic. Finland through her representatives also was summoned to the grim palaces of the Kremlin, but the Finns protested, delayed, conscious of their generations of opposition to czarist dictatorship, aware of the achievements in state-building attained in two decades of independence from Russian rule. The Finnish showdown was briefly postponed.



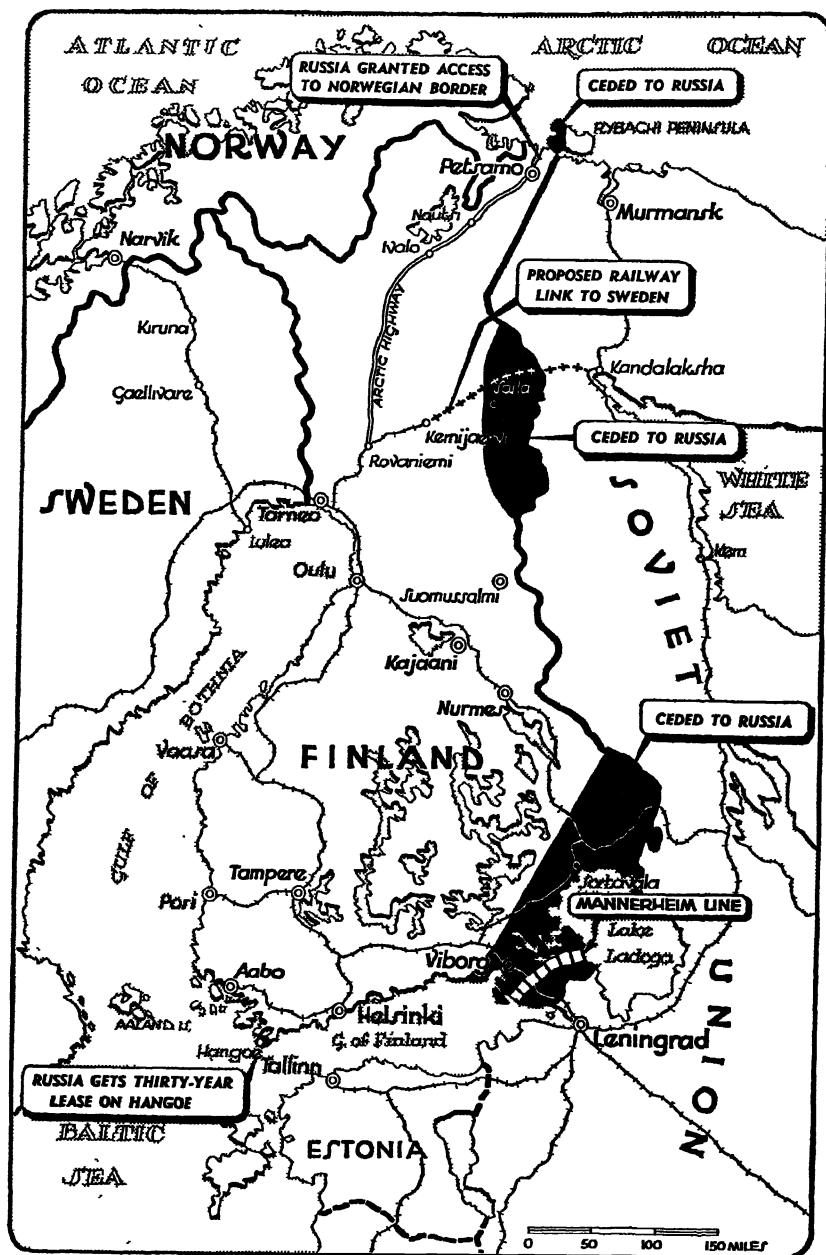
# RUSSIA vs. FINLAND

FINLAND, a nation in November 1939 of about 4,000,000 persons, has a long tradition of hatred for things Russian. Swedish-ruled until passed to Czarist Russia in 1809, the Finns struggled always to maintain their nationality and in 1917 took advantage of the Bolshevik revolution to assert their independence. They fought the Russians, with German aid, repressed their own communists, and emerged as an independent democratic republic. The legacy of anti-communism was nurtured through the years as the Finns built their nation.

Thus when Russia, after the Polish partition, extended its influence over the Baltic States, Finland grew wary. Russian attempts to bring the Finns within Moscow's orbit failed, and on November 30, 1939, Russian planes began the bombing of Finnish cities. A nation of 4,000,000 was at war with a nation of 180,000,000.

The winter war was fought in snow and ice over lake-strewn and forest-covered country. The Russians drove along the Karelian Isthmus, guarded by the Finnish fortifications of the Mannerheim Line, in an attempt to strike at the Finnish city of Viborg and to lift the threat of Finnish attack against Leningrad. They drove also north of Lake Ladoga in an effort to outflank the Mannerheim Line. They sought to cut Finland in two by an offensive in the Soumussalmi sector at the narrow waist of Finland. In the Arctic they captured Petsamo.

Both sides, fighting in bitter weather, suffered cruelly, but the Russians, despite superior numbers, seemed at first unable to crack the Finnish defense. Lines fluctuated, and the Russians did not always hold the line of their farthest advance. Democratic nations rallied behind the Finns, though only a few volunteers actually fought on the Finnish side. Gradually the weight of numbers told. The Finns began to retreat. The Mannerheim Line was broken; Viborg, Finland's second city, fell. The end was at hand.

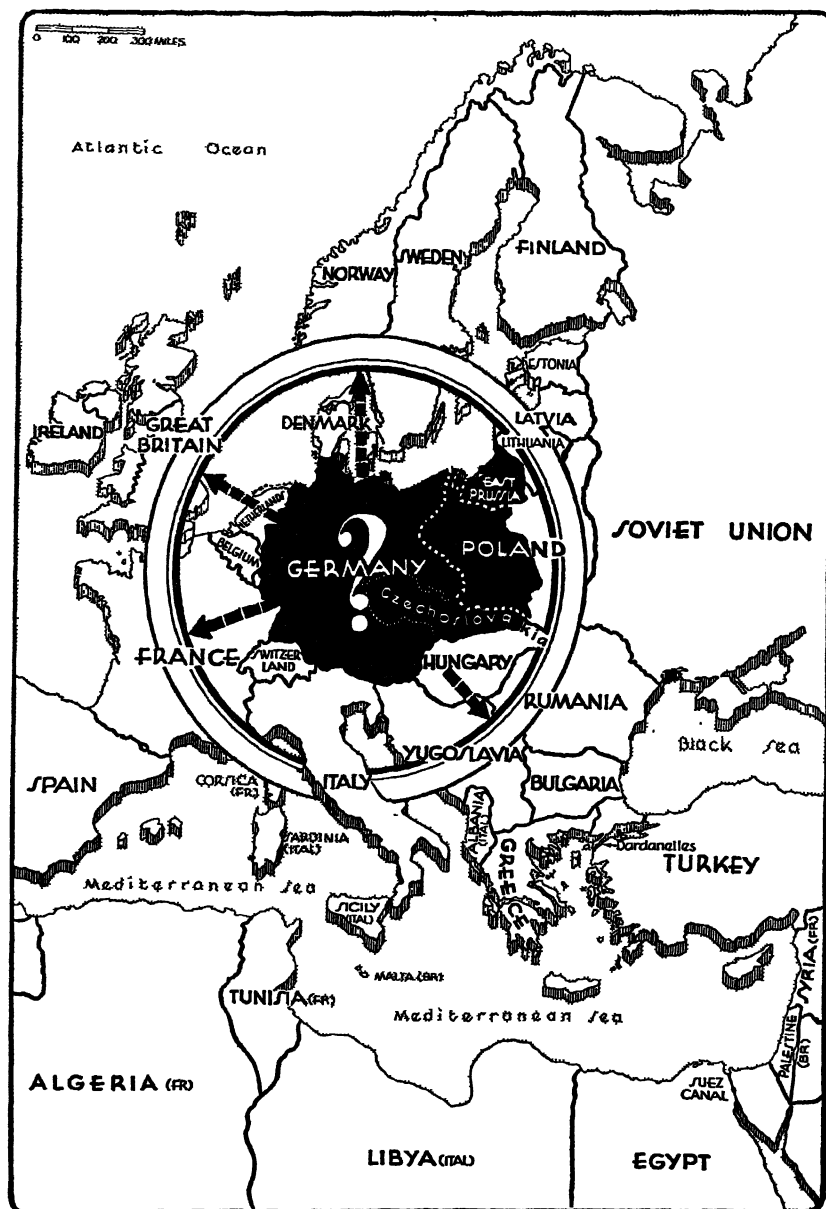


# PEACE IN THE NORTH

BEHIND THE KREMLIN'S red walls diplomatic negotiations were in progress in early March 1940. Finland's Prime Minister had come to sign a treaty of peace that would end the destruction of his nation's towns and villages, that would end the ceaseless hammering of its exhausted army. The Russian terms were hard, but the Finns had no choice.

Finland ceded all the Karelian Isthmus, scene of the war's heaviest fighting, and the city of Viborg. Territory north and west of Lake Ladoga was ceded, thus giving the Russians control of Europe's largest lake. A naval base was leased on the strategic Hangoe Peninsula that commands the entrance to the Gulf of Finland. Some northern land was also ceded, and special privileges for trade and military purposes were granted. Finland had preserved its independence, but the Russian shadow fell heavily across the little republic.

The peace strengthened Russia's position, apparently at least, for it removed the immediate likelihood that Finland would be used by the great powers as a base for attack against the Soviet Union. Russia once more, as in the days of the czars, stood forth as a powerful Baltic nation. The Allies in a sense had suffered a defeat along with Finland as a result of the Russian victory, for many observers had thought it possible Allied aid to Finland might pass through Scandinavia, might end not in aiding the Finns but in using Scandinavia as a jumping-off point for an attack on Germany from the north. That vision died with the signing of the Treaty of Moscow.

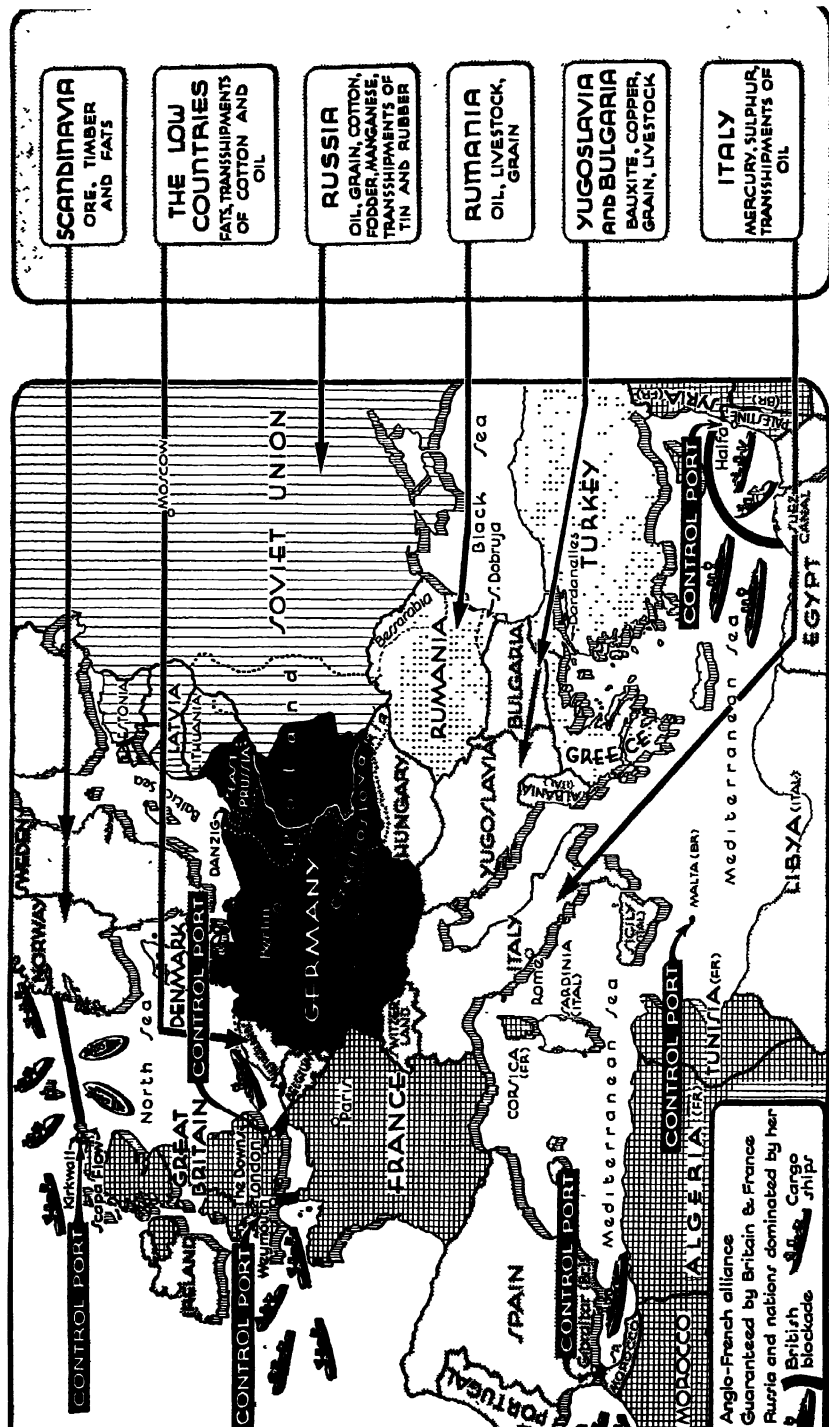


# GERMANY ENCIRCLED

HITLER'S THIRD REICH, for all its successes, remained essentially an island in Western Europe. Except for its Baltic shores and a short North Sea coastline, the country was cut from direct access to the sea. Communications depended to a large extent therefore on the suffrance of neighbors. France and the Low Countries blocked the western outlet, at least in part. The Mediterranean, however accessible through Italy, was patrolled by the British. The Balkans were distant.

Railways were wholly inadequate to haul goods to Germany from the Balkans or from Russia. In winter ice closed not only the vital canal networks but the Danube also, that transportation artery for all Central and Eastern Europe.

Germany had more reasons than pride for wanting to end her island status. A great industrial nation, she lacked many of the raw materials of industry. Except as oil could be extracted from coal, she was dependent on foreign sources for her oil supplies. That meant access to the Rumanian fields and possibly those of Russia. For the best grade of iron ore the Germans looked to Sweden. Chromium and tungsten came from outside the Reich. So likewise did cotton and rubber, much of Germany's fats and foodstuffs, drugs, copper, and timber. Some needs could be met through the making of synthetics, but if Germany was to be the great nation her leaders desired her to be, she had to be able to tap without restraint Europe's stocks of raw materials and to reach, unmolested, for others beyond the Continent's frontiers.



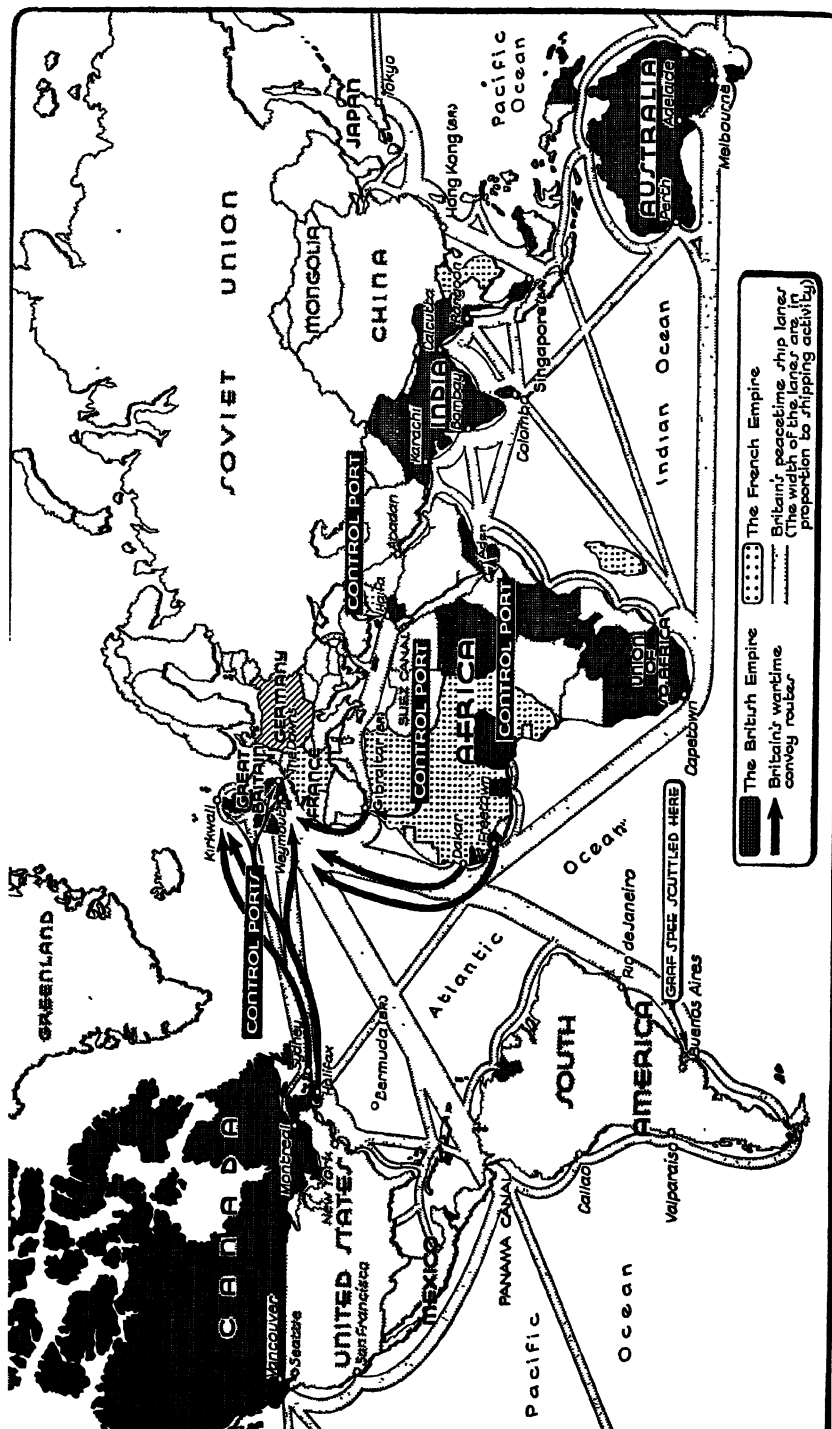
# 13 THE ALLIED BLOCKADE

IN THE FIRST WORLD WAR the Allies had done much toward humbling Germany through blockade at sea. Essential materials had been shut out of the Reich. Foodstuffs had been embargoed. The result had been great suffering, a weakened home front. When military disaster was laid upon that foundation, collapse followed. With the lessons of the First World War at hand, Britain and France hoped to improve still more on the effectiveness of blockade, even though in the present conflict the Germans had built up great reserves and great synthetic industries to counter a blockade as soon as it began.

The outbreak of war brought blockade immediately, and though some vessels did run the Allied cordon, Germany was fairly well cut from access to such vital materials as cotton, rubber, and oil. The Allies set up control ports, where ships of all nations were obliged to halt for inspection. They sought to check at the source cargoes that might be destined

through neutral nations for Germany. It seemed as though the Allies might succeed in starving out the Nazi fortress.

The blockade, however, was not complete. Except as the Allies bought up stocks of oil and minerals in Balkan nations like Rumania or Yugoslavia, there was no way, so far as transport allowed, for preventing Germany from tapping these storehouses. Sweden supplied iron ore, either by way of the Baltic or through the Norwegian port of Narvik. Italy, allied to Germany anyhow, sent food to Germany. The Nazi victory in Poland had supplied Germany with some oil and with new sources of raw materials. Russia had agreed, although the agreement amounted to little except on paper, to send foodstuffs and metals and oil to the Reich. That Germany was pinched a strict rationing system bore partial witness, but her need was not great enough to come near crippling her military might.



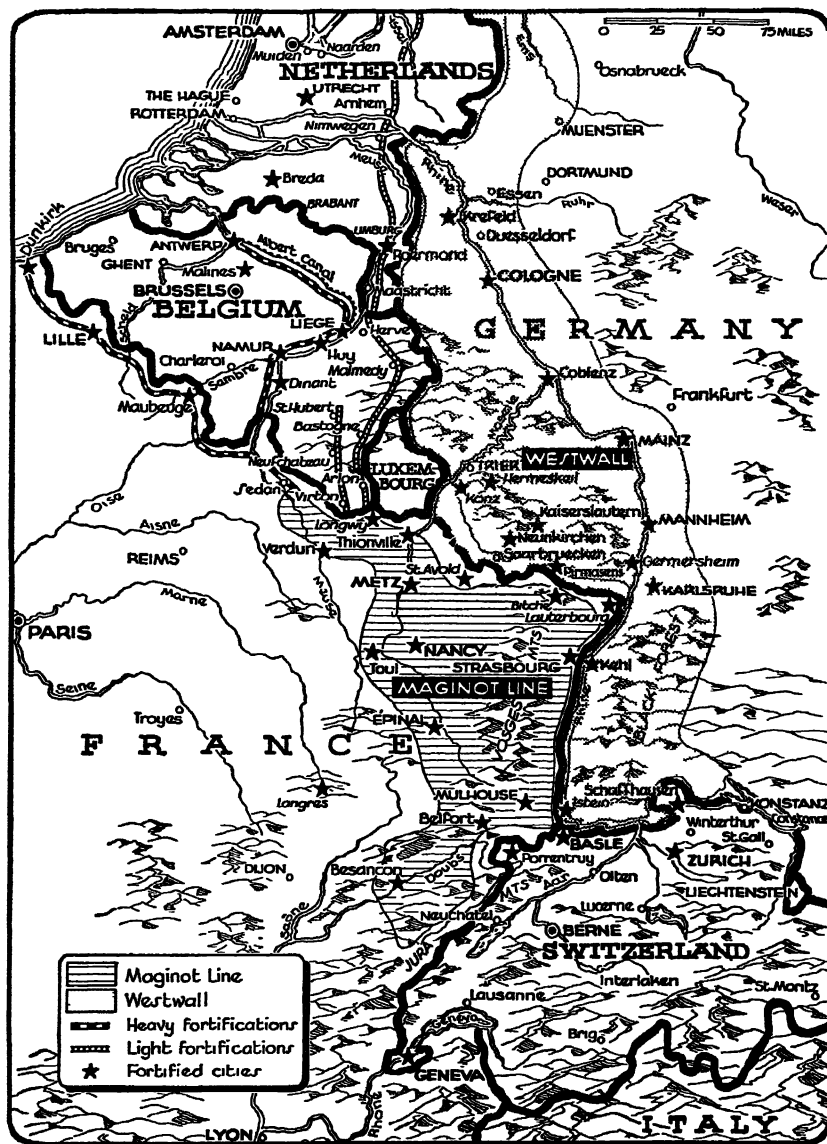
# 14 WAR AT SEA

THE ALLIED NAVIES when the war broke out foresaw two principal tasks ahead of them: (1) maintenance of the blockade against Germany; (2) protection of merchant shipping from German raiders, surface and undersea. Compared to the combined British and French navies, that of Germany counted little, except for an expanding fleet of submarines and for several strong warships built or building. The Allied ships steamed to their positions and convoys assembled. The war at sea, however, took a somewhat different course from that charted.

German planes attacked coastwise shipping off the French and British coasts, bombing, gunning. Aerial mines were laid. A German U-boat crept into the great British naval base at Scapa Flow and torpedoed the battleship *Royal Oak*. German planes bombed Scapa Flow and the Scottish naval base at Rosyth in the Firth of Forth. The Nazi pocket battleships *Deutschland* and *Admiral von Scheer* set out on careers of commerce destroying.

This preliminary period of the war at sea came to a dramatic climax on December 13, 1939, when British men-of-war encountered the German pocket battleship *Admiral Graf Spee* off the Brazilian-Uruguayan coast. The powerful and fast war vessel had been commerce raiding in the South Atlantic, but that December day a British squadron caught up with her. Battle was joined.

The British squadron's three cruisers that ordinarily would be no match for the *Graf Spee* suffered serious damage as they chased her into the sanctuary of Montevideo harbor. The Nazi ship had been damaged also, though not irreparably. Ordered under international law to leave Montevideo on December 17, the *Graf Spee* in one of the war's unexplained mysteries was blown up by her captain's orders. To Britain the destruction of the ship offered partial compensation for Allied losses in the sea lanes of the world.



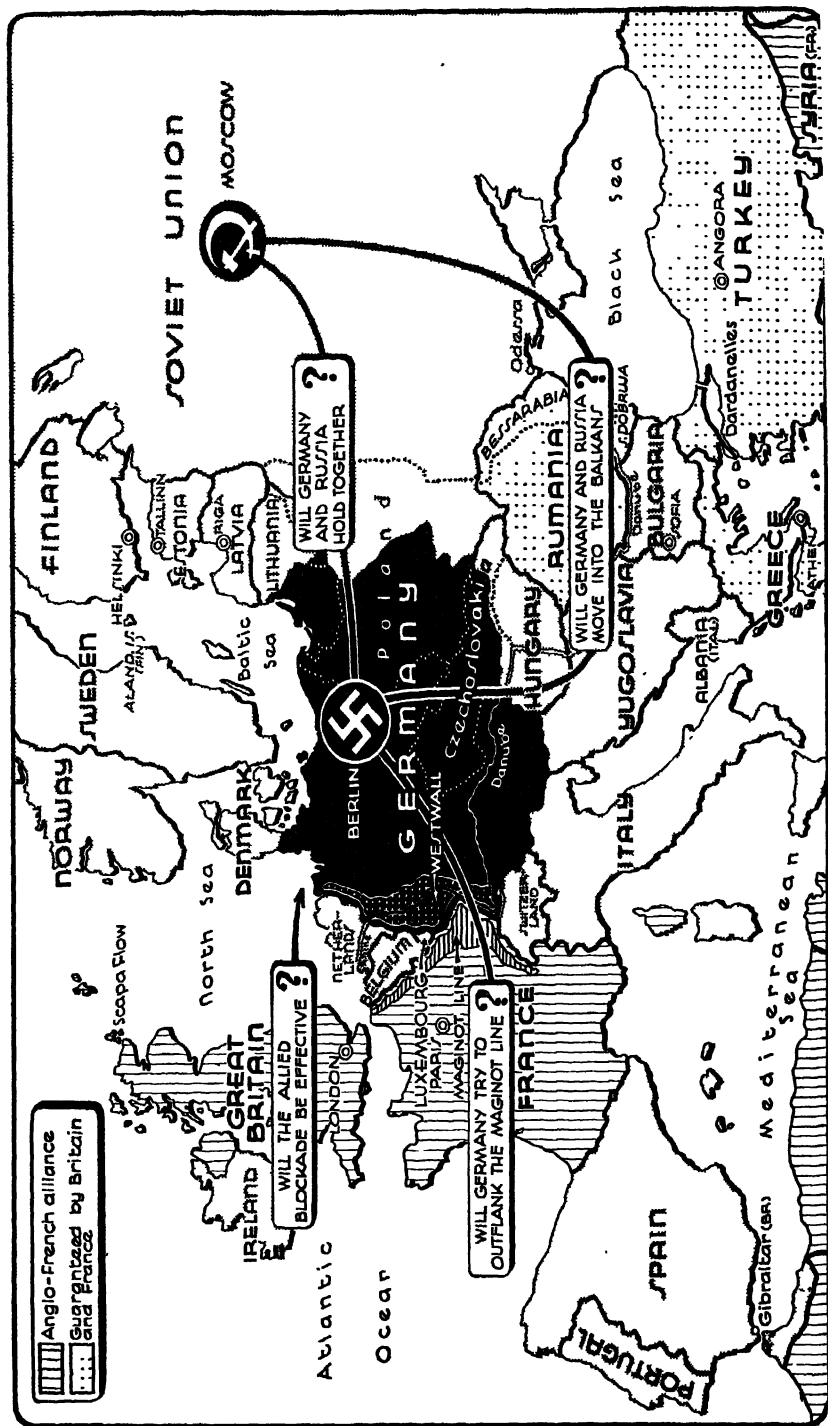
# THE WESTERN FRONT

GERMANY'S lightning defeat of Poland had lifted from the Nazi leaders the fear of a two-front war, which had helped defeat the Reich in Hohenzollern days and which it had become a cardinal tenet of Hitler's Reich to avoid. The only land frontier between the belligerents was now the line of Switzerland to Luxembourg, a line approximately 200 miles in length. On either side fortifications regarded as impregnable faced each other.

France had been building her fortifications, the Maginot Line, for more than a decade. It fitted the French concept that never again should *la Patrie* be invaded by the German hordes. It fitted also the prevailing military concept that modern war could be defensive war, with a minimum of casualties. The Maginot Line was actually a 'fortified position in depth.' It consisted of fortresses and pillboxes—compared to battleships sunk in the earth—extending from close to the frontier back ten to forty miles. There were vast underground barracks and military storehouses. There were tank traps and barbed wire entanglements. For scores and scores of miles the line ran, the most extensive fortifications the world had ever known.

Opposite the Maginot Line, in German territory, stretched the Westwall or Siegfried Line. Built later than the French system and copying it presumably in many respects, it had been constructed rapidly in the four years before the war. Like the French fortifications, the Westwall represented fortifications in depth. There were fortresses, pillboxes, nests of anti-aircraft guns, tank traps. Hills had been converted to defense purposes. Villages had been moved to give place to forts. Some reports had it that 20,000 gun emplacements had been installed. But the Westwall, like the Maginot Line, remained something of a mystery.

What modern armies could do against such fortified systems had yet to be demonstrated. For the moment neither opponent cared to test the strength of the other. The armies in their fortifications awaited the order to attack.

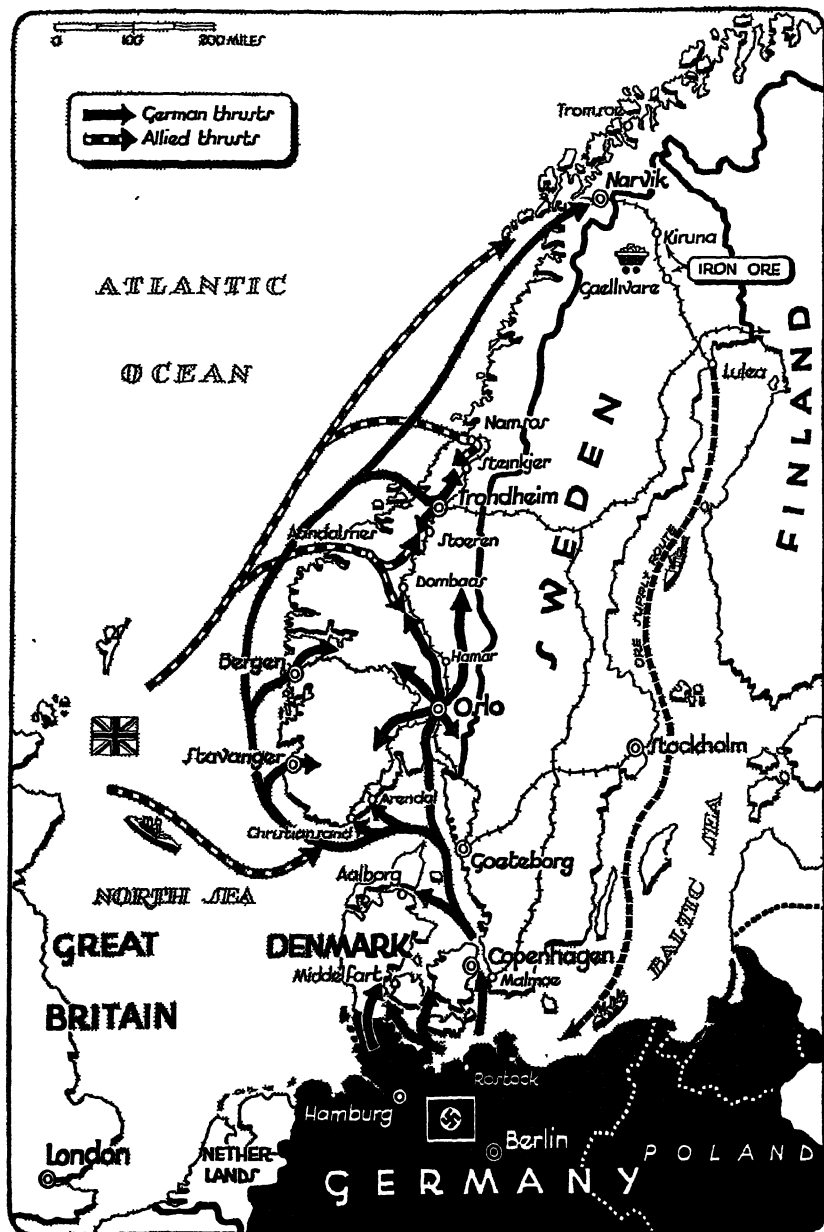


# 16 'PHONEY WAR'

'WHITE WAR,' 'war of nerves,' 'phoney war,' such were the words for the conflict that held Europe in its grip as 1939 gave way to 1940. Germany, it was estimated, had 4,500,000 men under arms. Britain and France together accounted for 4,800,000. For the most part these men mounted guard only, waiting, while their leaders uttered threats and, on the Nazi side at least, talked peace.

In the casements of the Maginot Line French soldiers idled their days away, and opposite them German troops massed and manoeuvred but failed to attack. Patrols clashed. Planes flew overhead occasionally. Though a British expeditionary force had taken up positions in France, German propaganda made much of the slogan 'England expects every Frenchman to do his duty.' At sea the blockade persisted and Nazi U-boats took toll of Allied shipping.

Outwardly it seemed that the warring nations were in check, yet it was obvious that the Germans after their Polish victories could not rest on those laurels alone or that the Allies could permanently accept the German-induced changes in the map of Europe. Sooner or later a blow was sure to fall. Where was the question. Would the Allies strike first, risking the Westwall's vaunted impregnability? Or would the Nazis take the offensive, seeking to outflank the Maginot Line perhaps by a drive through the Low Countries and into northern France where the Maginot Line did not run? Or would the West remain quiet while the Balkans became a theatre of war? The questions, asked repeatedly by a jittery Europe, awaited spring for an answer. The belligerents meantime prepared as best they could for the day of testing.



# SCANDINAVIA INVADED

NORWAY, a nation of approximately 3,000,000, had been at peace for 126 years. Denmark, smaller in area, and 1,000,000 greater in population, had known no war since 1864. Both on April 9, 1940, were invaded without warning by Germany. Denmark was quickly overrun in a few hours. Norway, aided by Britain and France, held out for two months.

The Nazi invasion of Denmark was simply a matter of sending troops, truck-borne, across the frontier. Norway was more difficult. Troops hidden in merchant ships in Norwegian harbors sprang suddenly ashore to occupy strategic centers. Sea-borne and air-borne, troops landed in Norway to support the first surprises. The capital city of Oslo, the important sea towns of Bergen, Trondheim, Stavanger, and Narvik were quickly seized. Then prolonged fighting opened in the mountain valleys.

The Norwegian Army, hastily mobilized, supported with some British and French forces, resisted valiantly as the Germans drove north from Oslo to Hamar and to Trondheim. There was fighting at sea. There was aerial warfare, although the Germans from the first enjoyed a telling superiority in the air. The Allies, badly organized, inadequately equipped, won some local successes, but were forced steadily back. Only at Narvik, the northern port, through which had been shipped Swedish iron ore, were the Germans driven out. The Allies were unable to hold that town in the end.

By the Scandinavian victory Germany had vastly improved her strategical position. She had removed the possibility of an Allied flanking movement from Norway. She had gained numerous ports from which to send raiders against Allied shipping. She had won sites for airfields that would be useful in air attacks against the British mainland. Denmark and Norway alike offered temporary gains in raw materials for the blockaded Reich. Denmark was rich in dairy products. Norway had timber and furs the Nazis needed.



# COUNTRIES FALL

AT BERLIN'S STATE THEATRE on May 9, 1940, Nazi officials were prominent in an audience gathered to see *'Cavour,'* a play by Benito Mussolini. Along Germany's western frontier troops were massed, awaiting the signal to attack, and at near-by airdromes planes were ready for the take off. Netherlands and Belgians, Britons and French, in some instances but dimly aware of what was at hand, slept on their arms. At dawn on May 10 Blitzkrieg came to the West.

The Netherlands had built its defense system behind the rivers Yssel and Meuse and planned to open the dikes to repel any invader as in centuries past. Belgium counted the Albert Canal, the Meuse, and the rugged Ardennes country in its defense system. Both countries had built systems of pillboxes and formal fortresses. Neither nation had co-ordinated its defense with the other, nor with that of Britain and France. Both lacked adequate anti-aircraft protection, air forces, and large-scale modern equipment.

The first phase of Blitzkrieg in the West opened with attack upon the Low Countries. Airfields were bombed, and behind defense lines parachutists were dropped. German forces, moving rapidly, struck across northern Holland, across the Rhine and the Meuse, cutting the Netherlands Army into segments, outflanking prepared defenses. Within five days the active war in the Netherlands had ended. Belgium resisted somewhat longer, though the fast moving Nazis outflanked the Albert Canal almost as the war began and sent another force westward to the Meuse below the First World War fortress of Namur.

The Ardennes proved no barrier to Blitzkrieg. Through the rugged forest country the Nazis poured, overrunning the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg and slashing into France. They aimed at the weak points in the French defenses—Montmédy and Sedan—where the Maginot Line ended and its so-called extension, a weaker defense line, began. The Battle of France was at hand.



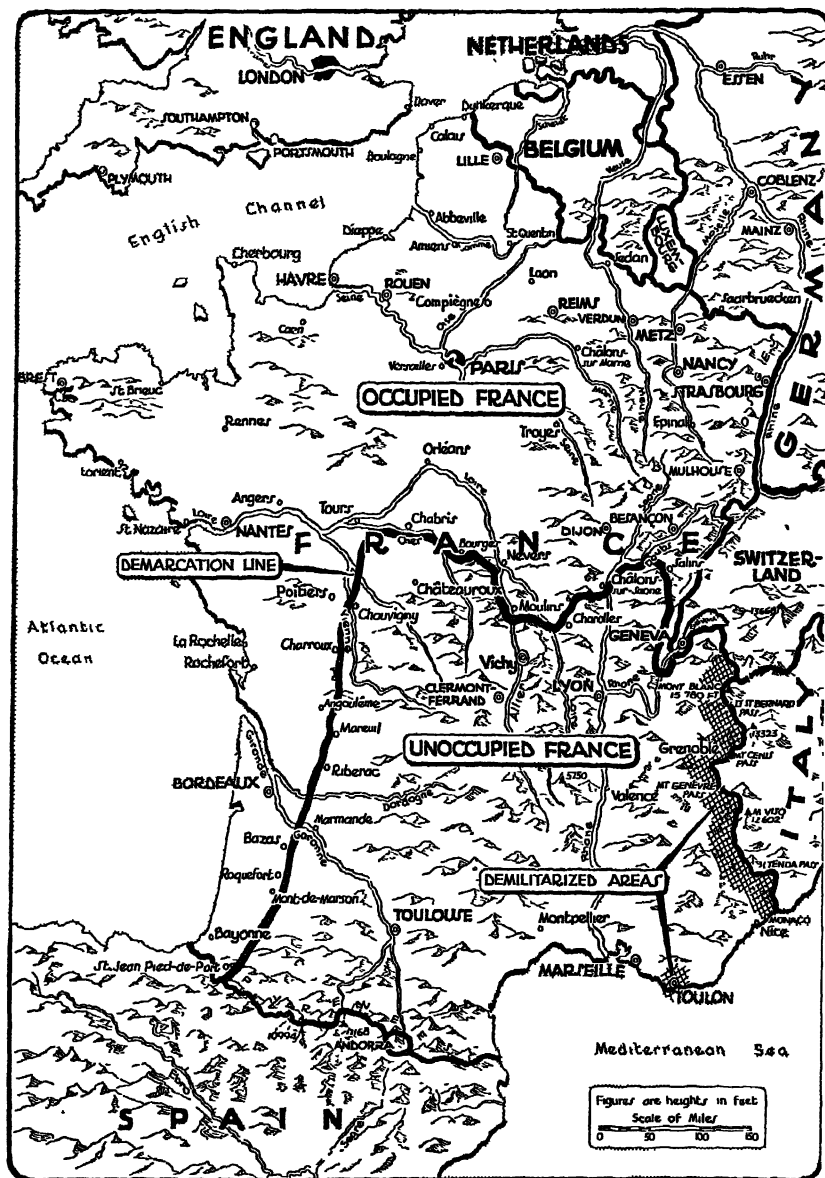
# BATTLE OF FRANCE

SPRING was at its most glorious when the Germans on May 10 struck in the West in what was to be less than a six weeks' campaign. Simultaneously with the assault on the Low Countries, the Blitzkriegers hit at France. The first phase of this latter attack was called the Battle of the Meuse.

Nazi troops, perhaps a 1,000,000 of them, after driving through Luxembourg and the Ardennes, stood on the Meuse at Sedan. Along the river from Sedan to historic Liège the Germans hurled masses of men, tanks and armored cars while overhead their planes swooped, bombed. The Meuse was crossed four days after the offensive began, and thus the Allied position in Belgium was outflanked and northern France was invaded.

A new phase—the Battle of the Channel Ports—now opened, for the German columns, motorized, traveling fast, using air protection to the utmost, drove south to the Aisne, west to the Channel. On May 21 the Nazis had reached the sea, and thus had isolated Allied forces in a great pocket from French Abbeville to Belgian Ghent. A week later the Belgians surrendered. The Allied forces were now ready for the epic withdrawal from Dunkerque, in which about 325,000 troops were miraculously rescued.

The last phase of the Battle of France now began. It was June 5. A great army along the Somme opened a drive deep into France. Once again the columns slashed forward, Paris the obvious goal. The French situation grew desperate, and at that moment, on June 10, Italy entered the war, attacking hard-pressed France from the south. On June 14 the Germans entered Paris, and by now the French armies, disorganized, were falling back as best they could with the possibility that a stand would be made along the Loire. Still the Germans pressed forward while some of their contingents turned to deal with the now isolated Maginot fortifications. The end was at hand. France sought an armistice. By June 24 the fighting was at an end.

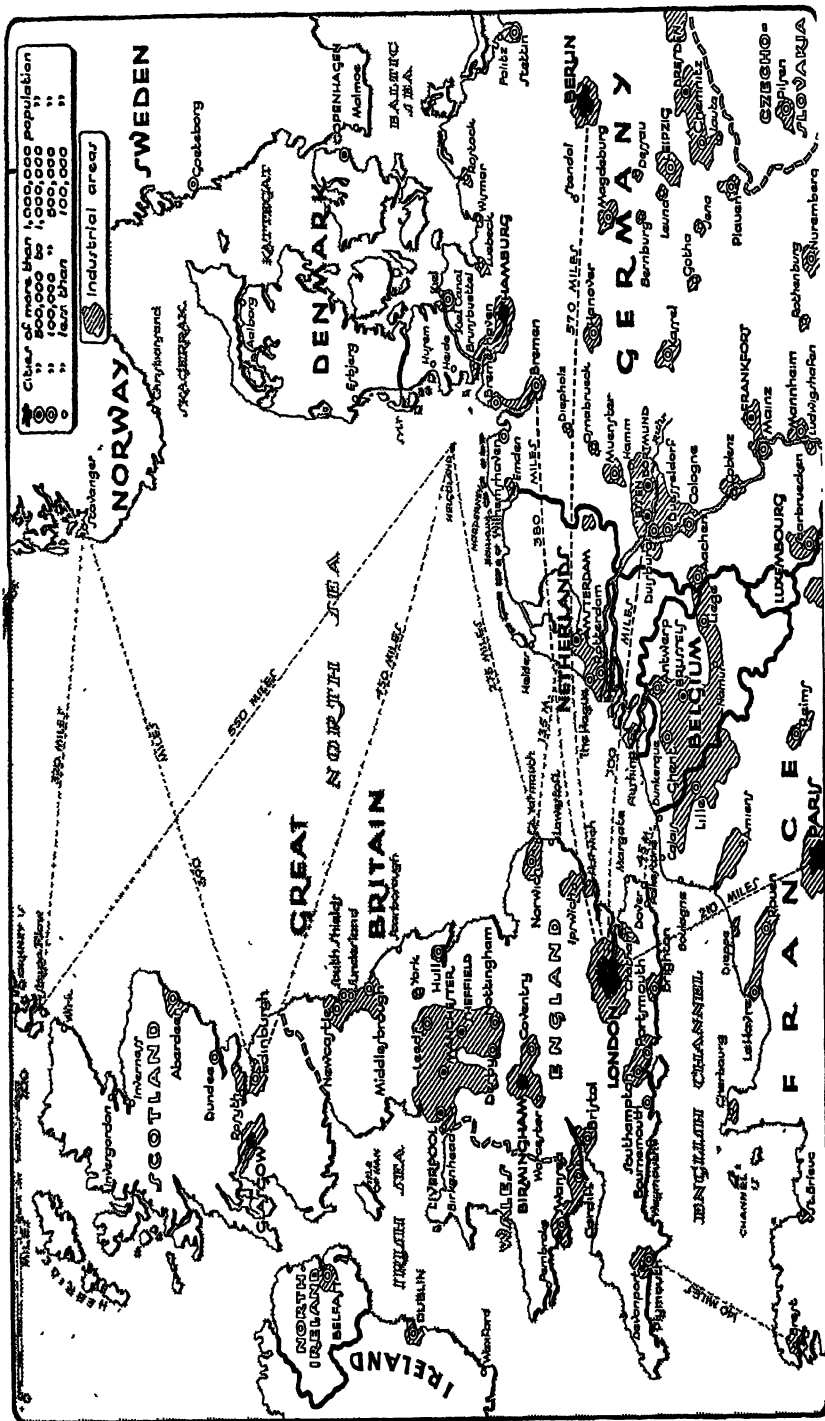


# FRANCE IN DEFEAT

A RAILWAY CAR drawn onto a siding in the forest of Compiègne saw German delegates on November 11, 1918, sign the armistice ending the First World War. The same railway car, since 1918 a museum piece, saw the French on June 22, 1940, sign an armistice with the Germans ending one chapter of the Second World War.

The armistice placed under German occupation all France west of a line from the Spanish frontier to Tours and north of a line from Tours to Geneva. It demilitarized French military and naval establishments. It placed on the French the cost of supporting the occupying forces. Of the total French population of about 42,000,000, approximately 27,700,000 were under German rule. Ten of the seventeen principal cities of France were in the occupied zone.

German occupation controlled 90 per cent of the pre-war iron output of France, 90 per cent of the sugar-beet production, 66 per cent of the coal output, 50 per cent of the wheat crop. The principal French industrial areas passed under German rule along with the best farming regions. The rump French State itself was German-dominated and what independence it enjoyed was only on Nazi sufferance.



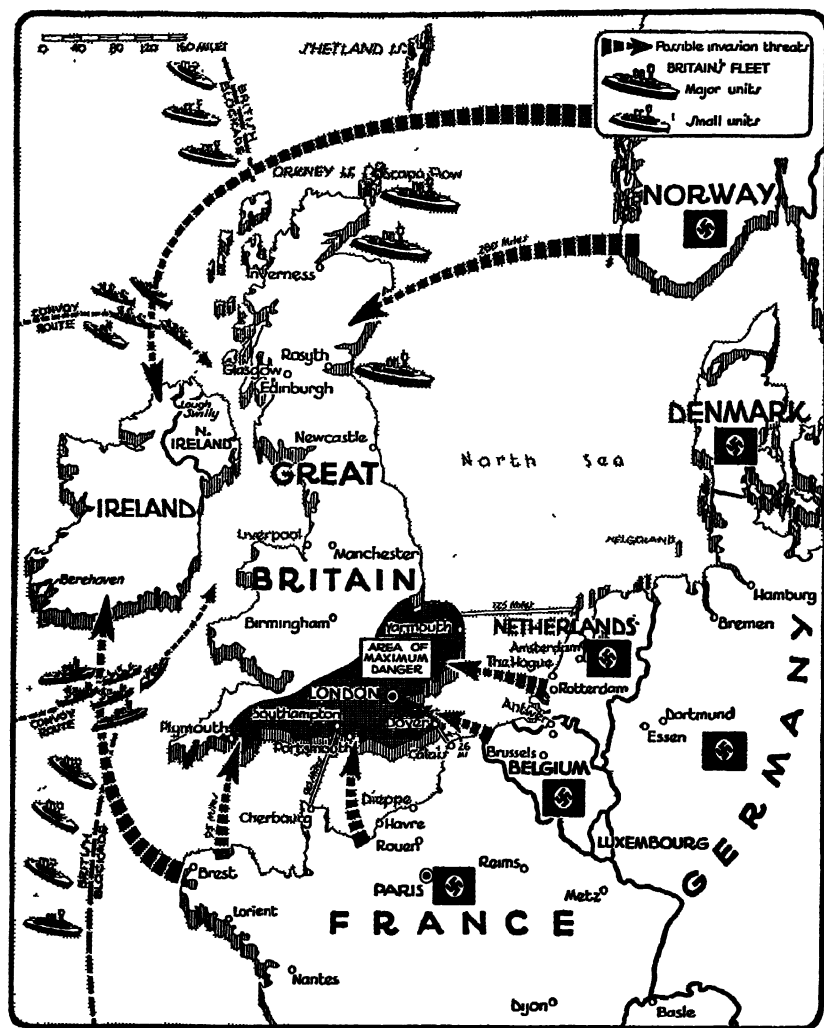
# 21 THE NORTH SEA BARRIER

BRITAIN, the 'tight little island,' has traditionally enjoyed immunity from invasion because of the heaving, gray waters that surround it. Despite many threats of attack, no major invasion army has landed on the British Isles since the time of William the Conqueror. In modern times the British Navy, patrolling the Channel and the fog-hung North Sea, has made nature's barrier doubly stout. Only with the rise of air power has the traditional British isolation been violated.

In World War I there were air raiders over Britain, though the damage they did was not great. There were planes over Britain again as soon as the present conflict broke. It is 275 miles across the North Sea from German Helgoland to the nearest point in Britain, and it is 550 miles from Helgoland to Scapa Flow. These distances shrank as the German armies conquered. The fall of Norway put Nazi planes at Stavanger only 390 miles from Edinburgh and 330

miles from Scapa Flow. The fall of the Netherlands gave the Germans air bases 135 miles from Norwich and but 155 miles from London. The fall of France brought the Germans within 26 miles of Dover at the Channel's narrowest point.

To maintain control of the North Sea and Channel thus became a far greater task for British military and naval power than ever before. German planes bombed British shipping in the Channel and the North Sea. Mines were dropped regularly and with ease from the German air fleet. Submarines, fast torpedo boats, and other small surface craft menaced Britain's coastwise traffic and convoys. The result was a tremendous burden on the British Navy. The air force had constantly to be on patrol also, and the British defense forces steadily on guard lest the North Sea barrier be breached in a German attempt to invade the United Kingdom.



# THREATS TO BRITAIN

BRITISH TROOPS saved from the French debacle reached home without most of their equipment. Their tanks and armored cars and artillery were in German hands. Practically a new army had to be built out of the ruins of the old. Meanwhile the United Kingdom stood open to invasion, and in that hour the nation braced itself and prepared, as Prime Minister Churchill put it, to fight the Nazis on the beaches and if necessary in the streets.

The Germans were believed to be scheduling an all-out assault on Britain. It might take either of two forms or a combination of both: (1) an aerial bombardment, designed to disrupt communications, production, and morale, and a submarine blockade that would aid further in breaking the British power to resist; (2) actual invasion by sea and air.

Britain with its long coastline had to be constantly on guard, for an invasion might come from one of many points or from several simultaneously. France, less than 100 miles from southern England, could provide several jumping-off points for invaders striking toward London. The Low Countries afforded other points, and even Norway could be used for an expedition hitting at Scotland. Once the Germans could establish beachheads, their strategy, if previous practice meant anything, would presumably entail the cutting of the United Kingdom into sections by fast drives across the country. Divided, each section could then be dealt with separately until all Britain had been conquered.



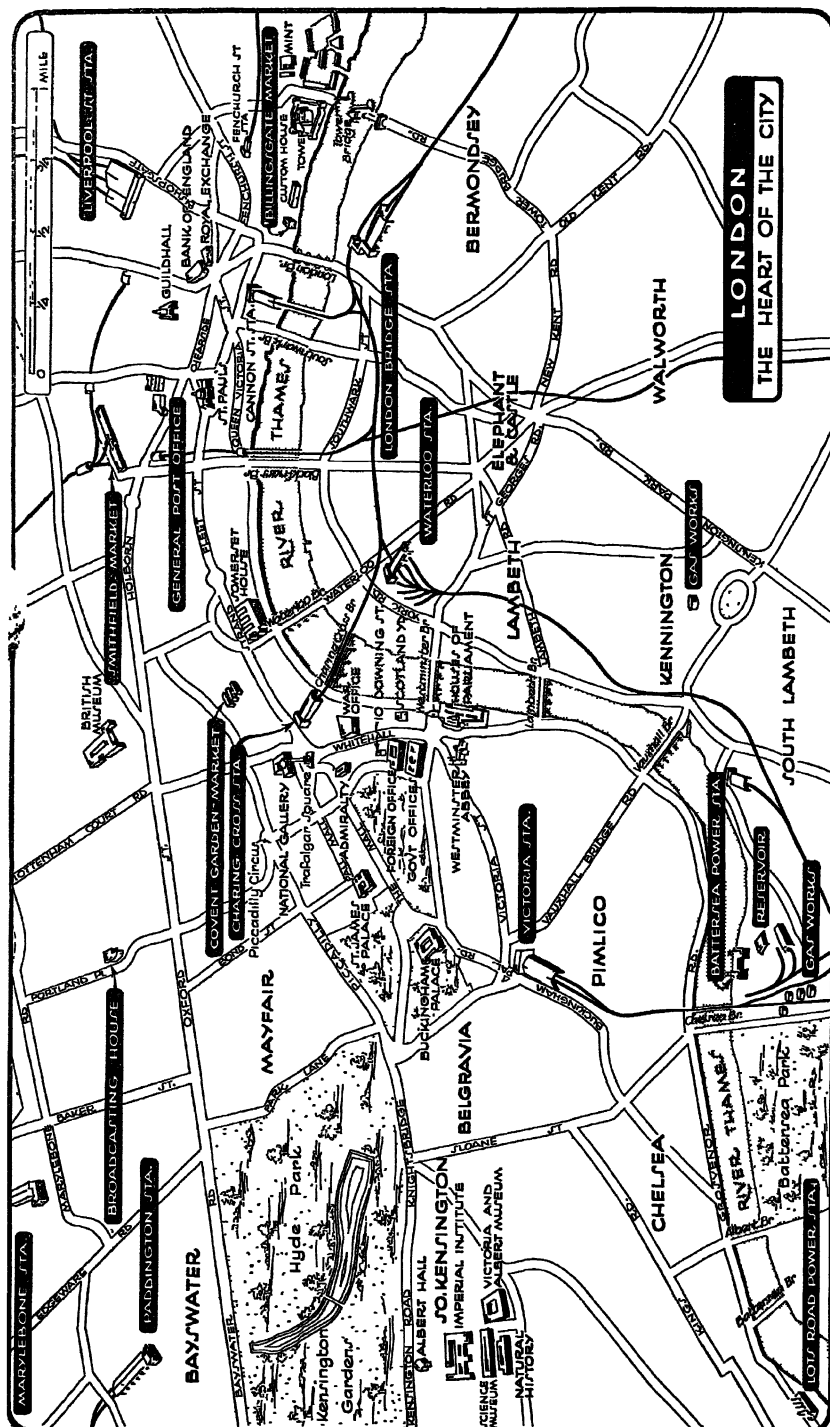
# BATTLE OF BRITAIN

GERMAN PLANES flew above Britain in constantly growing numbers after the collapse of France. Day after day the planes came over in raids that tested British defenses and that struck savagely also at British ports. These were daylight raids. They were costly to the Germans, for though Nazi air power may then have been four times greater than British, the British fighter planes were fast, well-maneuvred, and capable of taking heavy toll. It was August 8 before the aerial Blitzkrieg, due to continue for two months, got fully under way.

The Blitz began with large-scale daylight raids that seemed to belong to the softening-up process that might be a prelude to invasion. Ports and industrial cities felt the weight of this phase that ended after ten days. A second phase of another fortnight's duration began. This time ports suffered less than airfields and inland industrial cities. In September the aerial attacks reached a vast climax—in one day alone the Germans lost 185 planes—as the Nazis came over by day and night to pound at London and its docks. Thereafter the assault fell off until by the end of October it had lost its Blitz qualities.

The Battle of Britain as this aerial war came to be known had left devastation in its wake. Cities and towns had been badly battered. In London alone more than 14,000 civilians had been killed. Yet the British had taken it. Their will to resist had been heightened under attack. Moreover, their fighter planes, in a glorious chapter of British history, mauled the Germans, destroying, according to official account, 2,375 of the invaders' planes.

The bombing of Britain, notably London, continued for months after the Blitz, but the threat of immediate invasion had been lifted. The British had shown that they held command of the air over their own island. So long as that was true, any invasion attempts would be hazardous. The danger remained, but it seemed less immediate.



# 24 BOMBING OF LONDON

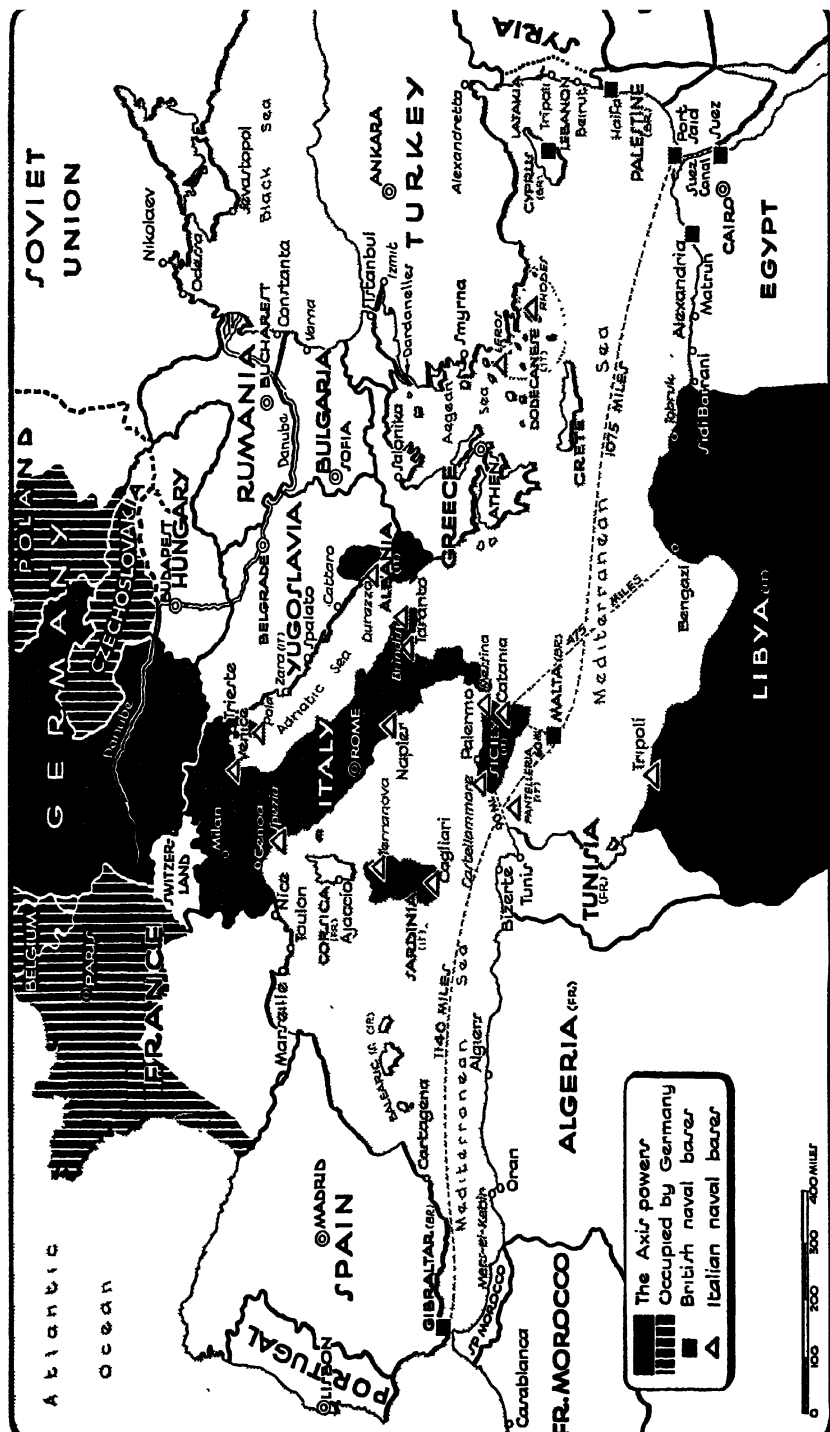
POLITICAL PRESTIGE as well as military strategy demanded the bombing of the belligerent capitals, London and Berlin. Each opponent had something to gain from such raids, and the Germans stood particularly to gain from London's destruction.

The historic city, metropolis of England with more than 8,000,000 population, heart of the British Empire, has been a symbol of British greatness. The national culture is linked to the city almost as truly as French culture has been linked to Paris. London is the center from which radiates the British railway and communications network. The great port of London—the docks extend for 67 miles along the Thames—handled in peacetime 70 per cent of the country's imports, 33 per cent of its oil, 27 per cent of its timber, 44 per cent of its wool. Great warehouses packed with vital ma-

terials are near by. There are factories in London, airplane plants and airdromes.

Berlin has a little better than half London's population, and is relatively modern, for it grew to greatness after the rise of Prussia. The administrative center of the Reich just as London is the administrative center of Britain, it is also an industrial and commercial city.

London immediately became more of an air-raider's target than Berlin. The reason was obvious. From bases on French soil it is only a matter of minutes for a bomber to take off and reach the British capital. But from British bases it is 600 miles to Berlin, a long and perilous journey at any time and especially in the short nights of summer. Thus while London was being pounded, Berlin remained relatively untouched.



# 25 THE STRATEGIC MEDITERRANEAN

ROME AND CARTHAGE fought for domination over the Mediterranean's tideless waters, and the great inland sea has been continually a stake in the struggle of empires. From the time of Nelson British sea power, contested periodically by France and Italy, kept the Mediterranean a British lake. Gibraltar sealed the western end of the sea. Malta served as an important base off Sicily. Suez and Cyprus looked after British dominion in the eastern Mediterranean. Only in the present war has British control been upset.

Geography is responsible for the Mediterranean's importance. The narrow sea affords easy communication between Europe and Africa. It provides cheap trade routes from the Black Sea to Italy and southern France. Through the Mediterranean passes the shortest route from Britain to India, 7,500 miles as compared to 10,700 around the Cape of Good Hope.

In the first stages of the present war, the Mediterranean seemed to be securely in Allied control. Brit-

ain had her bases, while France commanded important naval strongholds at Bizerte in Tunisia, at Algiers and Oran in Algeria, at Toulon in France proper. Though Italy's fleet possessed considerable strength, it was not strong enough to knock out Allied sea power. The chief threat came less from ships than from planes, for in the Mediterranean distances were short enough for planes to attack men-of-war, and to the latter's disadvantage.

The fall of France upset the situation in the Mediterranean. No longer was Britain aided by the French fleet or afforded use of French bases. Italy's entrance into the conflict put Italian ships and planes, as well as German, on the British flanks. The course of the war, with Axis conquests in Eastern Europe and with ever-present danger in Italian Libya, made the Mediterranean dangerous for all British shipping unless heavily convoyed. The Axis saw the possibility of making the Mediterranean '*Mare Nostrum*.'

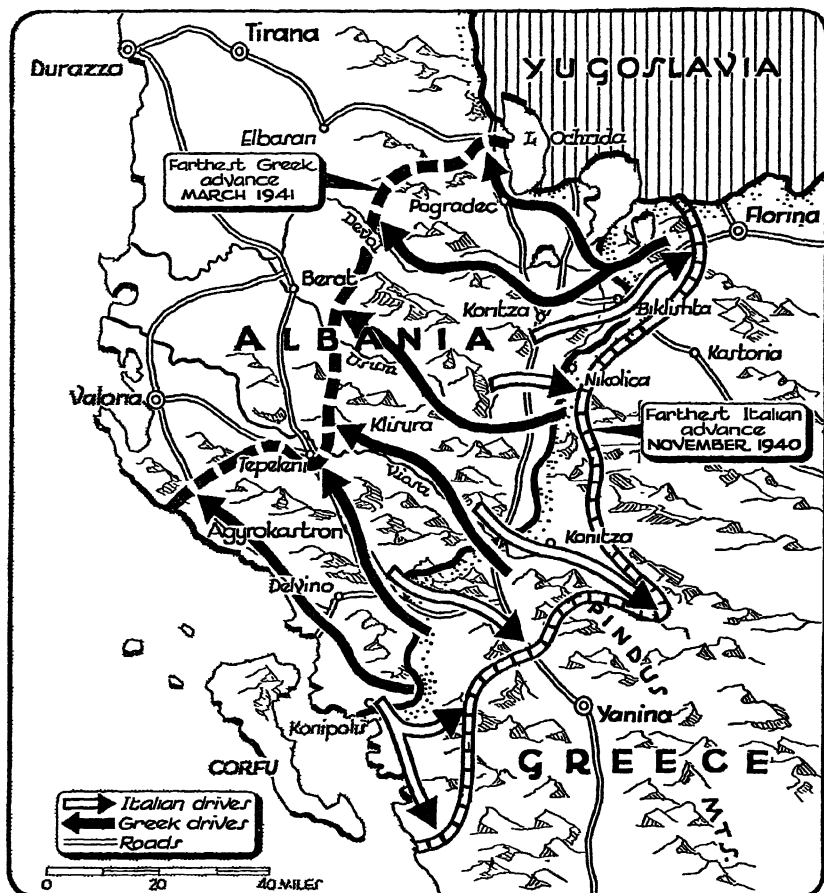


# BALKAN TOPOGRAPHY

THE BALKANS, in a geographical sense, extend from the Danube to the Aegean, and from the Black Sea to the Adriatic. Within these boundaries are held approximately 187,764 square miles, an area slightly smaller than that of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa combined (190,198 square miles). Mountain ranges and narrow mountain valleys characterize much of the Balkans, though in Macedonia the mountains give way to fertile lowlands that once served as the granary of the Turkish Empire, and Central Yugoslavia is a plateau that slopes gently to the Danube, merging northward into the plains of Hungary.

Stretching across the peninsula, roughly from east to west, are the Balkan Mountains that give the whole region its name. High though the ranges are, rough, rugged, they are nevertheless broken by many easy passes that soldiers and traders and wandering peoples have crossed throughout human history. The Dinaric Alps that run along the Adriatic present a more formidable barrier, for their crossing is difficult and good routes are few.

Historically there are several great routes of communication in the Balkans. One follows the rivers Morava and Vardar to Salonika, a land route that thus connects the Danube with the Aegean. Another uses the valley of the Struma to reach the Aegean. Still another follows the Morava and one of its tributaries across the mountains into Bulgaria to Sofia, the Black Sea, and the Dardanelles. An east-west route from Salonika skirts southern Yugoslavia to Albanian Durazzo, a route that Romans knew and used. All these—both railroads and highways followed some of them—sprang into prominence and importance when the storm of war broke over the peninsula in the fall of 1940.



# ITALY vs. GREECE

RAINS FELL on the Pindus Mountains of northwestern Greece and turned roads to quagmires as Greek troops sloshed forward to meet the Italians, who on October 28, 1940, had been ordered to attack the Kingdom of the Hellenes. The war, opening with but slight warning, was a new move in the game of power politics. Greece with its islands held a strategic position in the eastern Mediterranean. The Axis nations wanted that position, for from it they could threaten Britain's Mediterranean sea power. They would hold in addition new springboards for advances into the Middle East and against Suez.

The war, upon which Italy entered with a light heart, confident that the fighting would bring easy laurels, held surprises. Greece, a nation of about 7,000,000, did not break before the Italian nation of 45,000,000. Instead, after early advances, the Italians were forced to retreat into Albania, the kingdom whose independence they had extinguished in the spring of 1939. Britain had guaranteed the integrity of Greece, and British air forces now came to aid the Hellenes. British supplies were also sent forward, though not in great quantity.

In all the severity of the Balkan Winter, amid snow and sleet and bitter cold, the ill-equipped Greek Army fought forward in the misery of the Albanian mountains. Briefly there were hopes that Italy—its troops had little apparent heart for the war—might be driven from Albania. The Greek forces pushed toward Tirana, the Albanian capital. They took supply bases and strategic points like Argyrokastron and Koritza. But the war bogged down in the winter weather, and unless Britain sent strong enough re-enforcements to make of Greece a major European front, the ultimate outcome could be anticipated. With the coming of spring, Italy's war with Greece was suddenly swept into a larger Balkan war. The end then came swiftly.



# BLITZ IN THE BALKANS

APRIL 6, 1941, was a Sunday, and in the frosty dawn bombers appeared suddenly over the Yugoslav capital of Belgrade. Bombs fell, announcing war between Yugoslavia and the Axis. The move had followed a Belgrade *coup d'état* ousting a pro-Axis regime that had been ready to come to terms with Germany and Italy.

Yugoslavia, a nation of about 16,000,000, now became a war partner with Greece and Britain. Ill-equipped, at least in terms of planes and tanks, never able to muster fully its army of 1,500,000, Yugoslavia fought alone and briefly, for British aid in quantity could not arrive in time and the Greeks had their own troubles. Against the Allies in the Balkans came blows from all sides—from Germany, Hungary, Bulgaria, and Italy.

The invaders drove from Bulgaria to Greece down the Strumitsa Valley, into Yugoslavia and down the Vardar Valley, ultimately capturing Salonika. Other forces cut across southern Yugoslavia, outflanking the Greeks, forcing them to retreat from Albania. Neither mountain terrain, bad roads, nor armed opposition seemed capable of stalling the Axis armies, which soon had cut up the Yugoslav troops, isolating them from their bases and their commands. Within twelve days formal resistance had ceased in Yugoslavia and the government was in exile. The bitterness of guerrilla warfare was about to be known in the Yugoslav mountains and valleys, for the war continued, guerrilla fashion, after nominally it had ended.

The Greek phase lasted hardly three weeks. Down across the historic plain of Thessaly the Germans drove. Italians invaded Epirus. Greek and Briton fought back as best they could, but the odds proved overwhelming and by the end of April Adolf Hitler had added another nation to his list of conquests. Above the Parthenon was raised the Nazi swastika.

# 29 GUERRILLA WARFARE



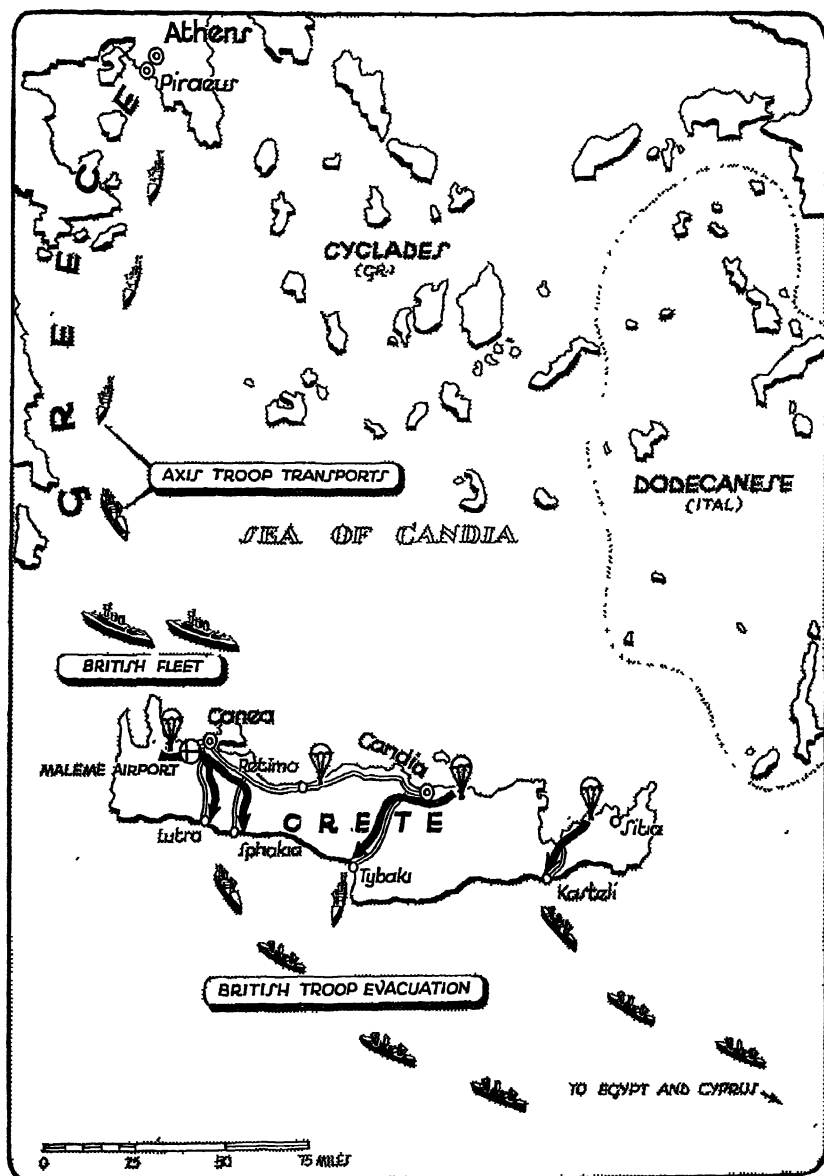
# IN YUGOSLAVIA

SERBS are old hands at the art of guerrilla fighting. It is an art they learned in the long years of Turkish domination, perfected during World War I, and brought to new heights in the present struggle. Hardly had the Axis Blitzkrieg swept over Yugoslavia before bands of soldiers and Serbian men and boys began to gather in the mountains of Bosnia and Montenegro to form guerrilla forces—'Chetniks.' Their organization slowly was perfected. From hidden caches arms were brought out. At their head stood General Draja Mikhailovitch, descended from Chetniks and a Chetnik himself in World War I.

As in that Serbian catastrophe a quarter century earlier, so in the present one, the Chetniks sallied forth at night to strike down sentries and patrols. They cut telegraph and telephone lines, dynamited bridges, interrupted rail traffic. By June 1941, they were harassing Axis garrisons throughout what had been independent Yugoslavia. German and Italian forces alike suffered from the Chetnik attacks, which often were more on the order of pitched battles than forays after dark. Periodically the Chetniks interrupted rail traffic on the important railway from Belgrade to Salonika, over which pass supplies for the Axis armies in North Africa.

Supplies were smuggled to General Mikhailovitch from the United Nations. Some munitions were obtained from Italy, so one story had it, in exchange for Italian prisoners. Yet the Chetniks, isolated, remained ill-equipped and ill-fed, fighting on desperately and as best they could against the day a United Nations offensive might aid in driving the Axis forces from Yugoslavia. Even at the end of summer, 1942, the Chetniks still held much of the mountain country along the Adriatic.

To subdue these guerrillas the Axis had from 150,000 to 200,000 troops in what had been Yugoslavia. These forces met the Chetniks in battle when they could. They took hostages, burned villages that sheltered the partisans. They threatened to exterminate the people of Yugoslavia. In the face of all this the guerrilla war went on.



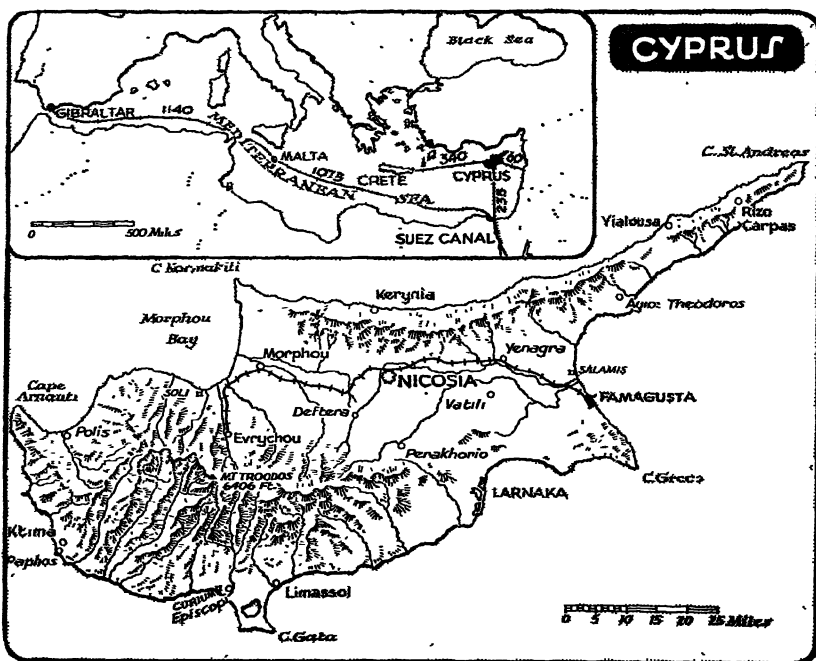
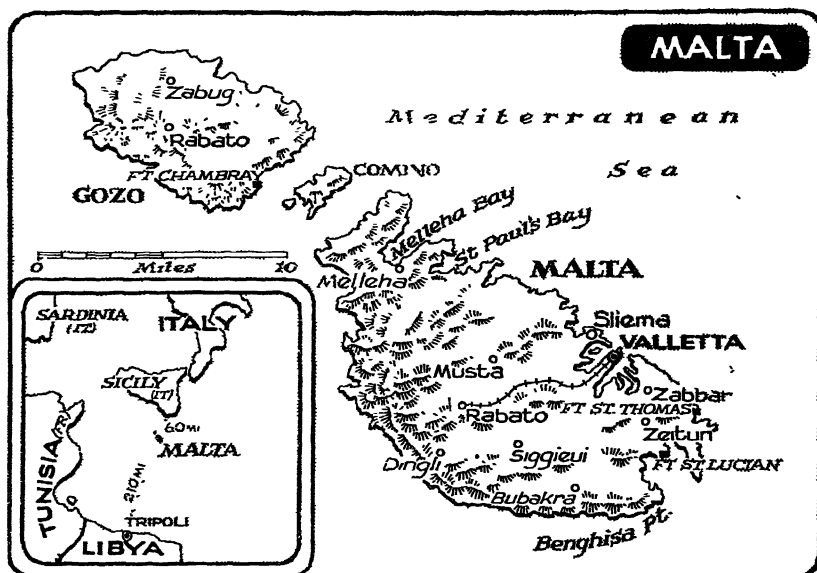
# THE BATTLE OF CRETE

CRETE, third largest island in the Mediterranean, has a strategic importance out of all proportion to its size. It is only 60 miles from the Greek mainland and 165 miles from the Greek port of Piraeus. It is 150 miles from the Italian base on the island of Rhodes and but 110 miles from the nearest mainland of the Middle East. Egypt is 340 miles distant. The British island of Cyprus is a like distance from Crete.

Who holds Crete thus holds a trump card. Britain understood that when in November 1940 her forces occupied Crete and began to build a base at Suda Bay, the only good harbor on the island. To Crete, after the mainland collapse, came the Greek Government. To Crete also on May 20, 1940, came the Germans—in the world's first major invasion dependent upon air-borne troops and parachutists. For 11 days there was fierce fighting before the Allies evacuated or surrendered.

At no time in the course of the battle did the Allies hold air supremacy over Crete. Neither did their anti-aircraft defenses prove anywhere near adequate. German troop-transports shuttled between Crete and the mainland; gliders participated. German bombers knocked out what few Allied airdromes there were and pounded British naval units guarding against a sea invasion. Losses on both sides were heavy, but the British fleet suffered particularly, both during the battle's height and during the tragic evacuation that ensued.

In this first major test between airpower and seapower, airpower had borne away the victory, teaching the lesson that without adequate air protection, warships are at serious disadvantage in any fight with airplanes. With Crete in Axis hands, the British position in the Middle East was approaching the critical.



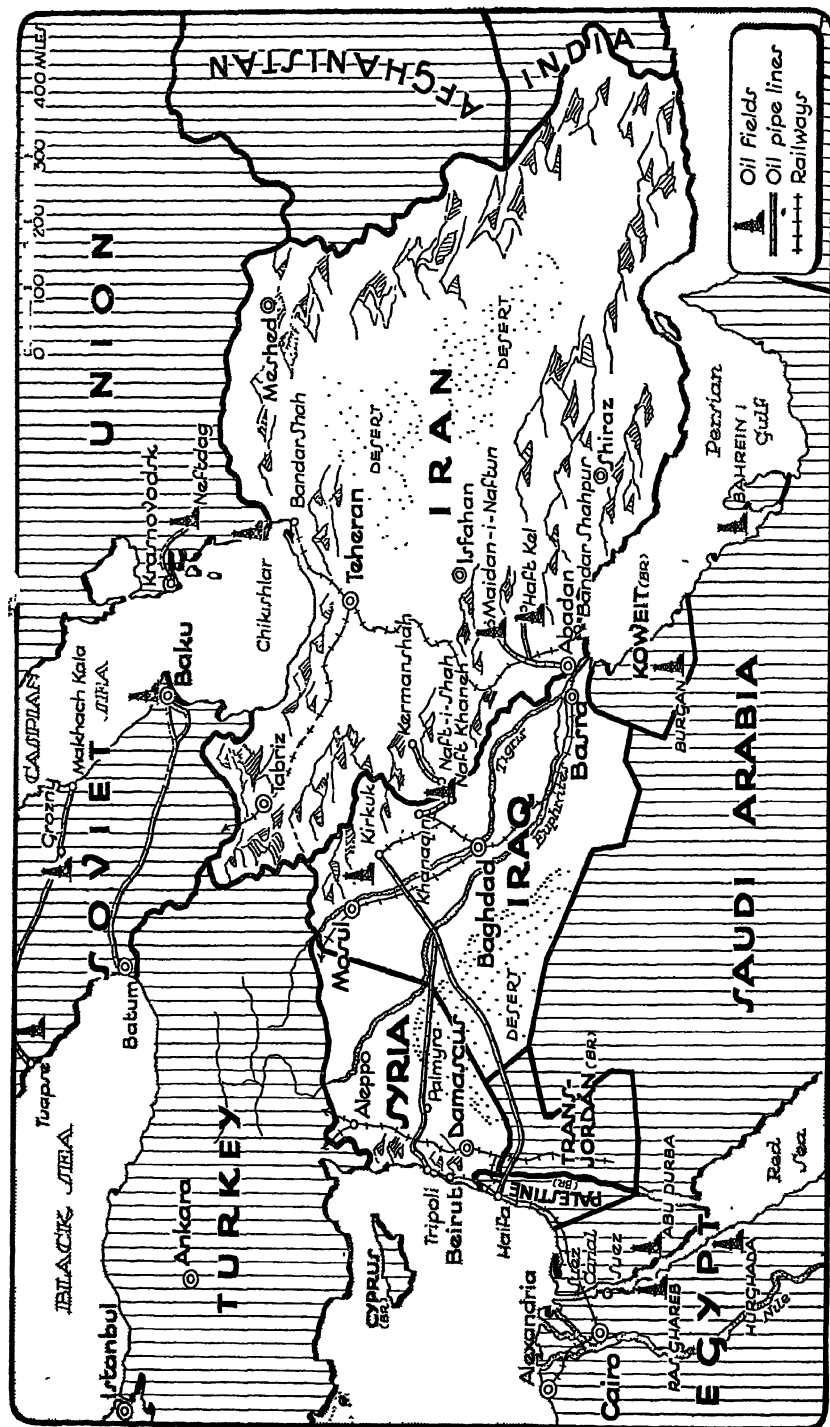
# MALTA AND CYPRUS

THE TINY ISLAND OF MALTA—it measures only about 120 square miles—has been called an unsinkable aircraft carrier, for its chief importance in the present war has been as an airplane base. A rocky islet, it lies only 60 miles off Sicily's southern shore. Tripoli is 210 miles away. Thus Malta presents a base for attacks on Axis supply lines from Italy to North Africa, and as the only Allied base in the central Mediterranean stands in the way of complete Axis rule of this portion of Mare Nostrum.

To reduce Malta, a naval fortress as well as a stronghold for planes, has been an Axis assignment ever since Italy entered the war in June 1940. Continually the island has been a target for the Axis bombers. During the first eighteen months of the war, raids averaged two a day. In January 1942, when an all-out assault was unleashed, Malta underwent 263 raids in a month in what was called 'the most sustained and intensive attack in the history of warfare.'

By the end of the third year of the war, Malta had been bombed more than 2,000 times, but it still resisted, a constant thorn in the Axis flesh. To reinforce and supply Malta became a difficult operation. Convoys were run through from Gibraltar and Alexandria, but with heavy losses. Yet Malta had to be held, and in the meantime it not only endangered Axis sea lanes but took heavy toll of attacking planes. In the first two weeks of July 1942, for example, 114 Axis planes were shot down over Malta.

Cyprus, at the eastern end of the Mediterranean is, like Malta, a strategic Allied base. It is 60 miles from the Syrian mainland, 340 miles from Crete, 235 miles from Suez. British-ruled since 1878, it has become a strong outpost in the defense of the Middle East, especially since the Axis might seek to use it as a stepping-stone in an aerial and sea invasion of Syria. At Famagusta on Cyprus is a British naval base that supplements the bases at Haifa, Suez, and Alexandria.



# 32 SYRIA, IRAQ, AND IRAN

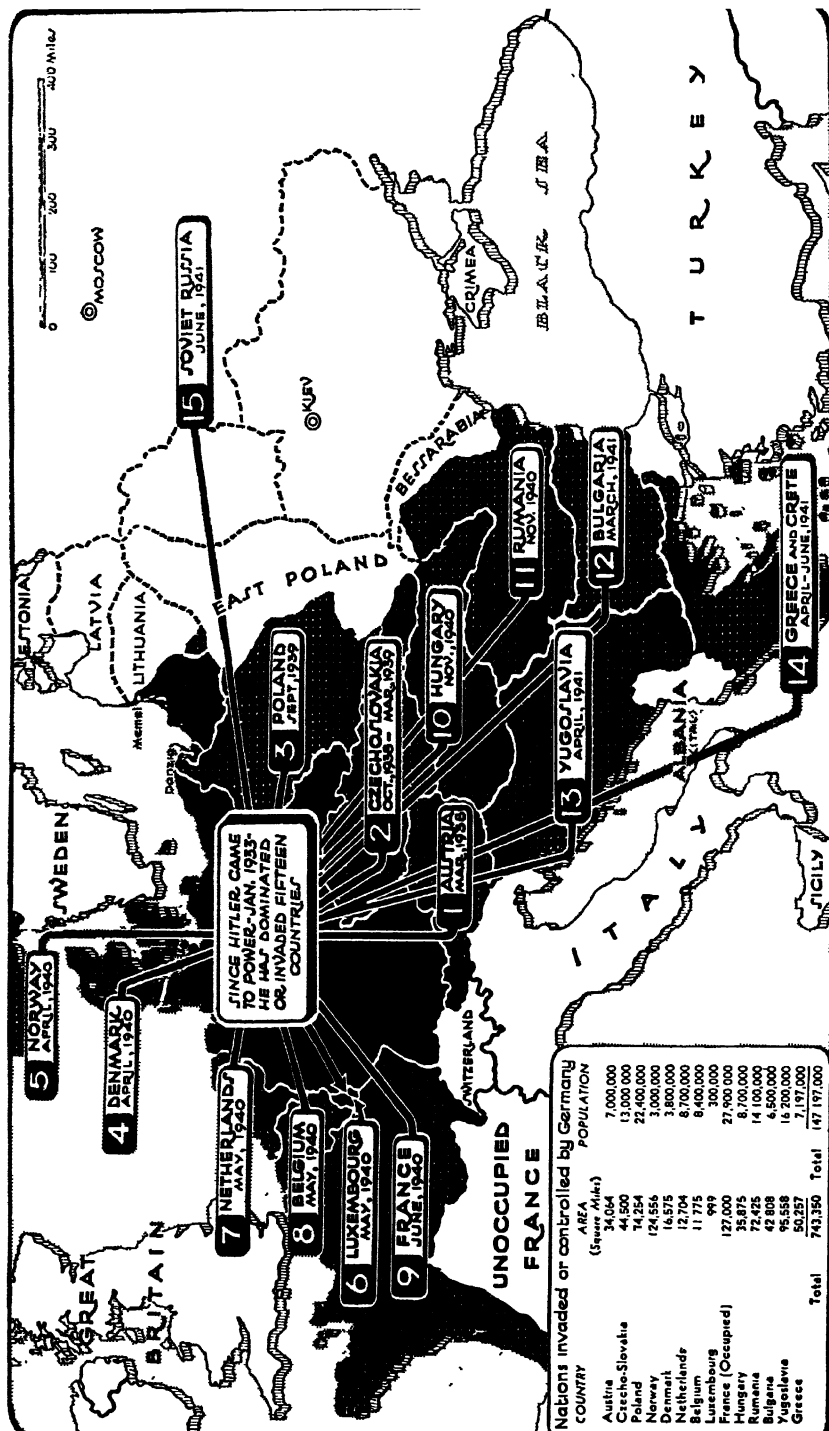
ACROSS THE MIDDLE EAST like a belt more than 1,200 miles long lie the three Moslem countries of Syria, Iraq, and Iran. Until after World War I, Syria and Iraq were part of the Turkish Empire. Thereafter, Syria, held by France under a League mandate, became virtually a French colony. Iraq in 1932 passed from the status of a British mandate to nominal independence. Iran, long the football of the powers, stayed independent only on their suffrance.

These lands are important in any struggle for empire. Iraq and Iran are rich in precious oil, while across Syria runs a pipeline through which much of Iraq's oil reaches the Mediterranean. The region guards the land route to India and protects the northern flank of Suez. By rail and highway through Iran Russia can be linked to the Persian Gulf.

In spring 1941 these Moslem lands seemed menaced by Axis penetration. In the Iraqi capital of

Baghdad a pro-Axis regime was established briefly—until driven from the country by British armed forces in May. The next month an army composed of British and Free French units invaded Syria, which was apparently about to become an Axis base, and after considerable fighting ended the control of the Vichy French over the territory. In August 1941, British and Russian troops obtained 'co-operation' from Iran by invading the country, forcing the Shah to abdicate, and establishing a pro-Allied government.

For the moment the Axis threat had been lifted, but the danger persisted that by land, sea, or air, the Middle East would be made a battleground. Axis armies might drive through Turkey, neutral but regarded as pro-British, invade Syria and strike overland, or outflank the whole Middle Eastern bastion by an offensive through the Russian Caucasus. To meet this threat Britain and her Allies mounted guard.



Nations invaded or controlled by Germany

COUNTRY	AREA (Squ. Miles)	POPULATION
Austria	84,000	7,000,000
Czechoslovakia	14,000	11,000,000
Poland	44,000	22,400,000
Norway	124,556	3,000,000
Denmark	16,575	3,800,000
Netherlands	12,704	8,700,000
Belgium	11,715	8,400,000
Luxembourg	999	300,000
France (Occupied)	127,000	27,900,000
Hungary	35,875	8,700,000
Rumania	72,425	14,100,000
Bulgaria	82,808	6,500,000
Yugoslavia	55,358	15,200,000
Greece	52,537	1,177,000
<b>Total</b>	<b>742,350</b>	<b>147,197,000</b>

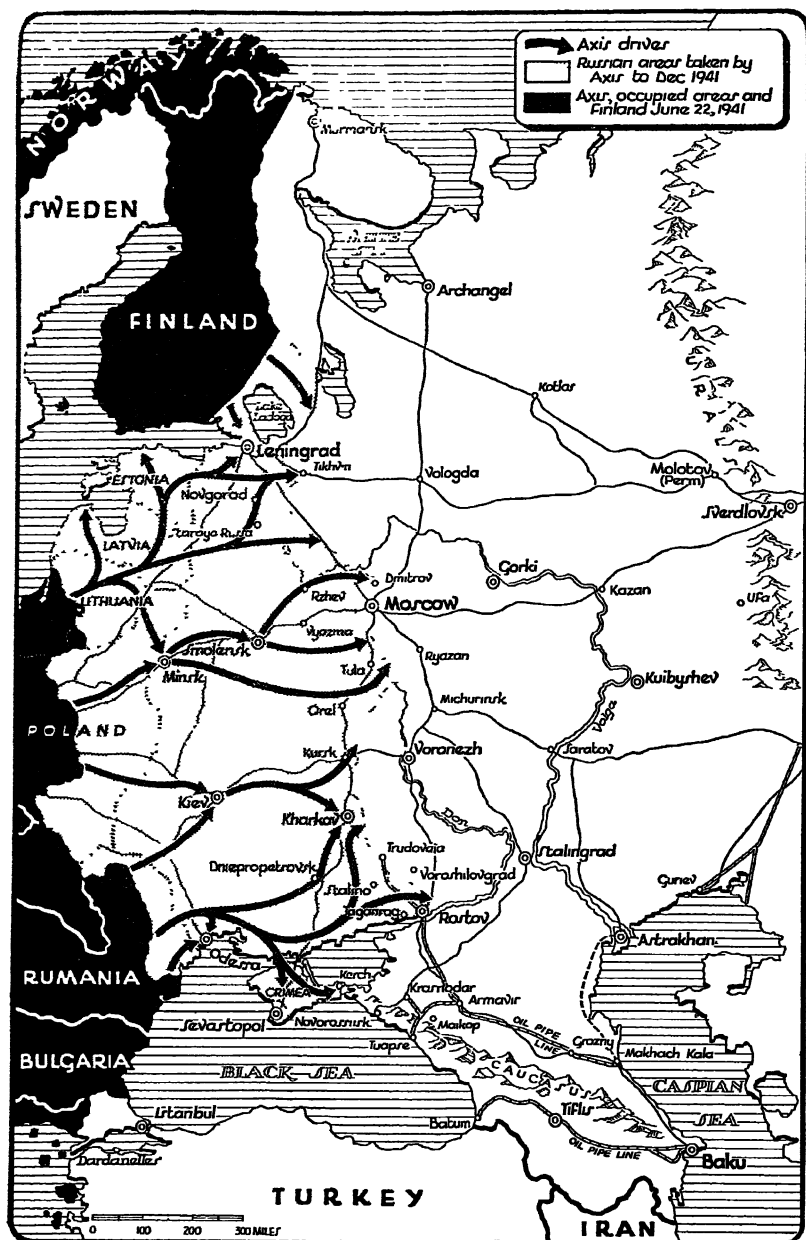
# 33 EUROPE, JUNE 1941

MILITARY OBSERVERS in late spring 1941 looked at the war and pondered upon Germany's next move. In less than two years of fighting Adolf Hitler had made himself master of Western Europe, by military conquest or, as in the case of Bulgaria and of Rumania, which in 1941 had lost Bessarabia to Russia and whose additional dismemberment the Axis had furthered, by diplomatic pressure and infiltration. Fifteen nations were in his control, yet the war was not won. Britain still resisted. Russia, though ostensibly a friend, loomed in the east as a potential foe.

Observers concluded therefore that Germany must seek to end British resistance. Actual invasion of the British Isles might be attempted or the empire's heart might be left to the last while Axis armies sought to destroy British power in the Mediterranean and the Middle East. If the Axis gained control of the Mediterranean, it would have a communication system over which could pass Rumania's oil, the foodstuffs of the Balkans and Africa.

While a good deal of attention was focused on probable fighting in the Middle East, observers noted also that German divisions were being massed near the Russian frontier. Rumors circulated that war was imminent between Germany and the Soviet Union. The massing of troops, it was said, was only to bring diplomatic pressure on Russia in order to obtain greater stores of Soviet foodstuffs and oil and other raw materials for the Axis war machine. Some even said the whole manoeuvre was a feint while Germany prepared an invasion stroke against Britain.

Tension, the war of nerves that Europe had known periodically ever since the Nazis came to power in 1933, spread across the continent as the rumors grew. Some reports had it that Germany was making fantastic demands for economic concessions in Russia. On June 21, an American correspondent in Ankara wirelessly that 'the strange marriage of convenience between Soviet Russia and Nazi Germany' was near the breaking point.



# ATTACK ON RUSSIA

'GERMAN PEOPLE! At this moment a march is taking place that . . . compares with the greatest the world hitherto has seen.' Thus Adolf Hitler on June 22, 1941, announced the opening of the Russo-German war. It was a struggle between titans and of such vast dimensions that its statistics were almost overpowering.

On the attacking side Hitler had sought to marshal Germany and its conquests—147,197,000 persons occupying a total area of 743,350 square miles—against 190,000,000 Russians, whose territory, 8,819,791 square miles, occupied about one-sixth of the earth's surface. The Axis armies—Germans, Italians, Rumanians, Hungarians, Finns—numbered somewhere between 2,800,000 and 3,600,000 men. On the Russian side about 2,000,000 troops were believed available. These great forces came to grips along a 2,000-mile front extending from the Arctic Ocean to the Black Sea. The battle was unparalleled in all history.

For the Russians the stakes of battle were national existence. For the Axis the stakes were almost as great, for if the Russian giant could be humbled, Adolf Hitler and his satellites would have only Britain to defeat before organizing Europe along lines they desired. In Russia would be found the oil needed so badly to support the industrial life of the 'New Order.' In Russia would be found also the foodstuffs—the Ukraine alone was a famous bread basket—for feeding the peoples of the 'New Order.'

Years earlier Hitler had set down in *Mein Kampf* his ambition: 'If the Urals, with their immeasurable treasure of raw materials; Siberia, with its rich forests, and the Ukraine, with its limitless grain fields, were to lie in Germany, this country under National Socialist leadership would swim in plenty.' The dream in part had belonged to the Germany of Wilhelm II and was all but realized in World War I. The corporal in the former Kaiser's army was moving to make the dream come true.



# 35 TECHNIQUE OF BLITZKRIEG

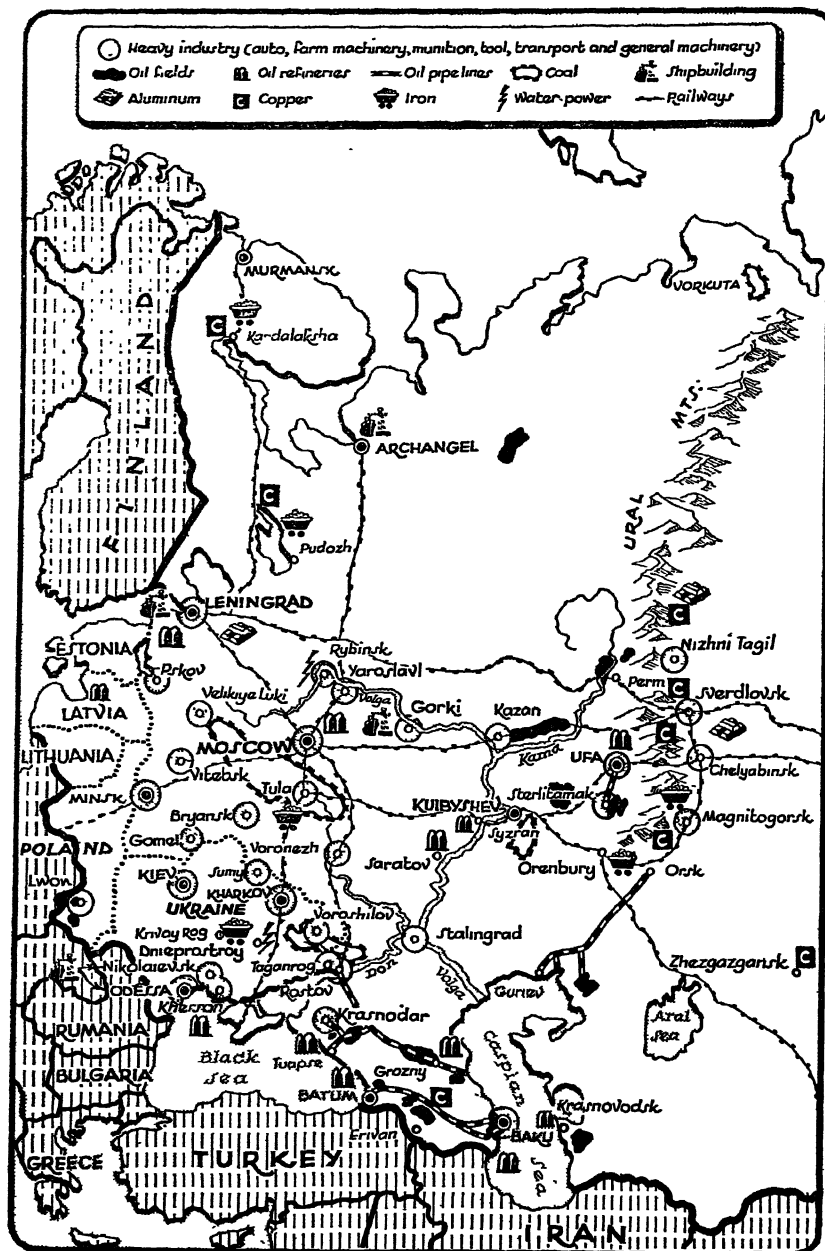
THE AXIS HORDES that, under an umbrella of planes, drove across Russia's frontiers on June 22 with tanks and trucks and cannon, demonstrated anew the technique of Blitzkrieg, perfected by all the lessons of nearly two years of war. The Germans and their allies rapidly overran Russian-occupied Poland, what had been the Baltic States, newly Russian Bessarabia. They pressed from Finland toward Leningrad. Russia's fortifications and strong points did not suffice to hold back the invading hosts.

Blitzkrieg, demonstrated once again, was fought as the accompanying charts illustrate. Before the point selected for a break-through, infantry, tanks, artillery, and dive bombers were massed. Lighter forces held the wings. Then, after the enemy's lines, communications, and airfields had been pounded by bombers and artillery, the full massed strength was thrown against the point of attack. If successful, a wedge had been driven through the opposing lines.

The wedge inserted, it was driven home as more

and more tanks and motorized columns moved forward. The break-through was enlarged, and meantime the process, for it was a continuous one, was followed as from the original wedge, now greatly widened, other wedges were driven. Conducted at great speed, this form of offensive took the form in the large of great forward, slashing drives that isolated Russian units until they could be cut to pieces by reinforcements brought up to consolidate positions taken by the mechanized spearheads of the invaders. Only when lines gave but slightly and it proved possible to cut off the invading wedge was the Blitzkrieg slowed.

The Axis armies held air superiority in Russia. They had superiority also in numbers and in mechanized equipment. In the face of the stoutest Russian resistance they drove ahead. In two months 179,000 square miles of Russian territory, almost the area of pre-Hitler Germany, had been overrun. The Soviet Union had met disaster but not defeat.



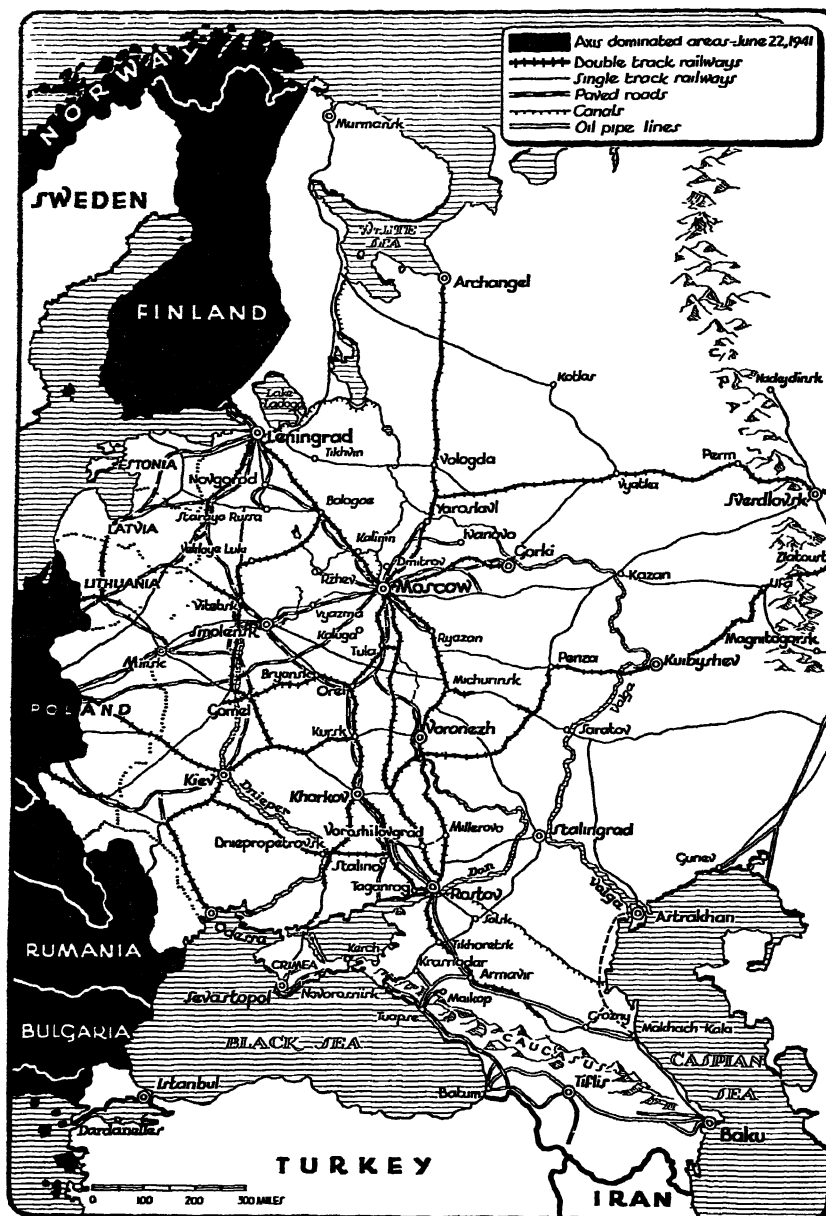
# RUSSIAN INDUSTRIES

UNDER SOVIET RULE Russia, which had been largely an agricultural nation, was greatly industrialized. The successive five-year plans built new industrial centers and expanded the old czarist industrial regions around Leningrad and Moscow. Efforts were made to keep each area relatively a unit, able to draw on its own sources of raw materials and to convert them into manufactured products.

Some of the industrial regions were dangerously near the frontiers. *Leningrad*, with its chemical, textile, and machine factories, was close to Finland. The rich *Ukraine*, so long coveted by Germany, was not just a granary that produced 20 per cent of Russia's wheat and 90 per cent of its beet sugar. Here in the Donetz Basin was dug 60 per cent of Russia's coal. The Krivoy Rog iron mines produced 60 per cent of the nation's iron. At Kharkov, Kiev, Dniepropetrovsk, Zaporozhe, and other cities, metallurgical industries had sprung up.

Invasion threatened these centers immediately. It did not touch at first the more remote areas. Around Moscow were grouped Russia's textile mills. Near by also were airplane and automobile factories, chemical plants, machine-tool shops. In the great Volga basin another industrial area had been constructed. At Gorki had been built Russia's largest automobile plant. Kazan was a munitions center. Kuibyshev, Saratov, and Stalingrad, all on this largest of European rivers, had become great industrial cities.

The Caucasus had a unique importance. The oil wells in this mountainous region produced in the pre-war days approximately 90 per cent of the Soviet Union's oil supply. Some oil, about 6 per cent of the total output, was in that period produced in the *Urals*, where under the Soviet regime a wholly new industrial center had been created. Here are coal, iron, copper, nickel. Here has been built Magnitogorsk, a great steel town, and other manufacturing centers. Finally, the *Kuznetzk Basin* in Western Siberia has become in a few years a highly important area for coal, iron, and heavy industries.



# COMMUNICATIONS

TRANSPORT has always been one of Russia's nightmares. Distances are great. The climate is severe, blocking highways, relatively few of which are paved, with ice and snow and mud much of the year. Winter locks the inland waterways, including the 10,000 navigable miles of the Volga and its tributaries. Railroads have never adequately served Russia; thus in 1937 the Russians operated only 53,163 miles of railway compared to the 236,842 operated in the United States.

In normal times the transportation system of the Soviet Union was wholly inadequate. War placed a heavy additional burden on the overworked railroads and highways. The need for supplying vast armies at the front and reserves at the rear taxed ingenuity. The problem was accentuated by the burden placed on Russian ports through which outside aid reached the Soviets.

The war immediately shut off the Baltic outlets and passage to the Mediterranean through the Aegean Sea. There then remained but three important ways of keeping contact with Britain and other allied or friendly powers: (1) the northern ports of Murmansk and Archangel, which are linked to Central Russian only by railway; (2) the Trans-Siberian Railway that covers 4,350 miles from Vladivostok to the Urals, a long, slow route at best, and worth little if Vladivostok should be blockaded; (3) a rail, highway and shipping route from the Persian Gulf across Iran to the Caspian Sea.

Russia before the war had steadily extended aerial transport. During the war aerial transport became most important. Over airways were ferried vital supplies, including foreign-made bombers. Over airways traveled officials and military leaders. Isolated though Russia was from the outside world, her isolation was not nearly so great as it had been during the First World War.



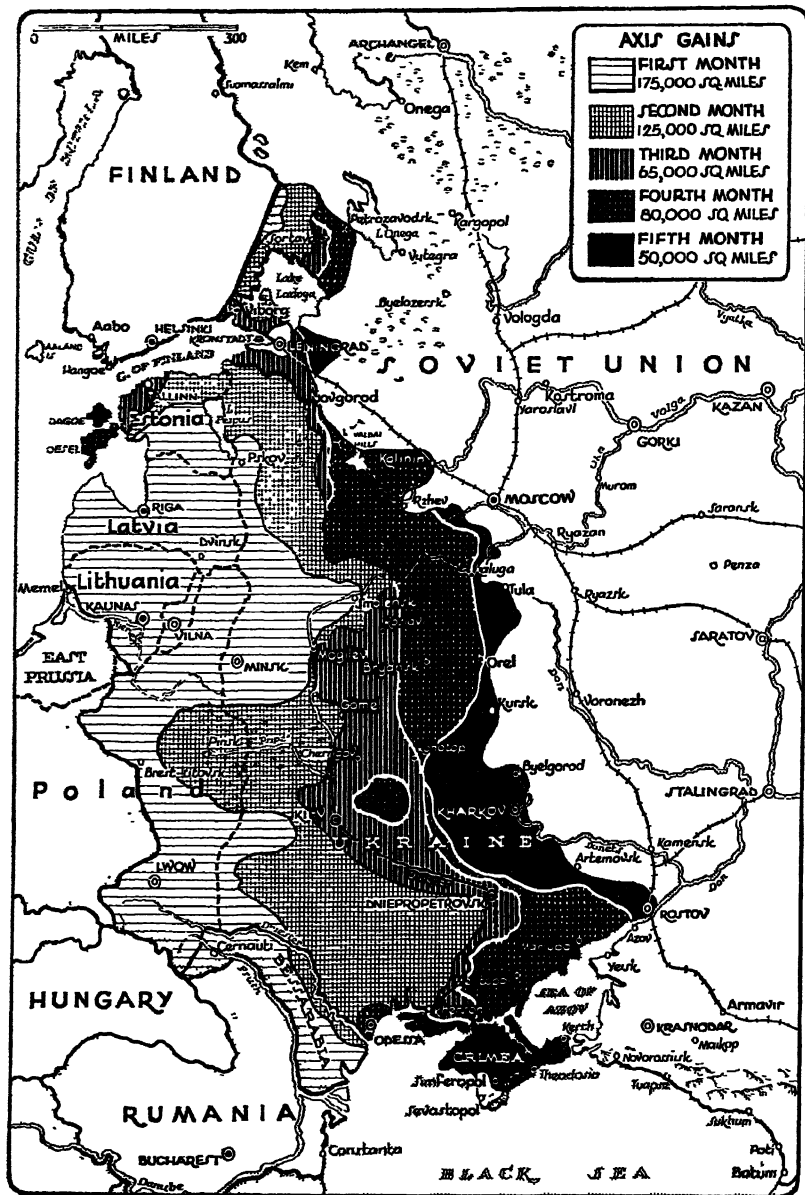
# 38 THE CAUCASUS

RISING LIKE A GREAT WALL as though to shut European Russia from the Middle East, the Caucasus Mountains stretch 900 miles from the Sea of Azov to the Caspian. These are Europe's highest mountains, tumbled masses that are perpetually snow-capped and down whose flanks glaciers creep. Elbrus rises more than 18,000 feet above sea level. Nine other peaks lift more than 15,000 feet. Here, mythology tells, Prometheus was chained. Across the mountain barrier invaders have pushed for centuries.

The passes of the Caucasus—the Derbent Gate along the Caspian and the Darial and Mamison Passes with their military highways—are military objectives to challenge any power. The Axis, however,

was more interested presumably in the oil of the Caucasus region and the pipelines that link Baku to Batum and Grozny and Maikop to Rostov-on-the-Don. Something like 9 per cent of the world's total oil production comes from these Caucasus fields. Almost five times as much is taken from these wells as from those of Rumania, Europe's only other important oil-producing region.

Capture of the Caucasus would therefore be a rich Axis prize. Not only would the problem of oil supplies be on the road to solution. Russia would be cut off from her principal source of oil. In addition, the Axis armies would be poised for attack against Turkey or for a drive across Iran to the gates of India.



# OF RUSSIAN WAR

THE RUSSO-GERMAN WAR was five months old on November 22, 1941. The day marked in a sense the end of the first phase of the war, as events soon bore out. It had been a phase of conquest on a scale unparalleled in modern history. Approximately 500,000 square miles of Russia had been overrun by Axis armies. At the farthest point the invaders were 560 miles from the German frontier.

Leningrad was besieged. Moscow had heard the sound of cannon almost in its suburbs. The Crimea had been taken, except for the naval fortress of Sevastopol, and the Germans were in the important city of Rostov-on-the-Don. Kiev, capital of the Ukraine had been taken in the third month of the war; Kharkov, a Russian Pittsburgh, had fallen in the fifth month. Odessa was gone. Most of the fertile Ukraine had been overrun.

In the fantastically bitter fighting unnumbered Russians and Germans had been killed. Battles had destroyed tanks and trucks and guns on a scale the world had never known. As the Russians fell back, they left behind only scorched earth. Factories, those that could not be dismantled, were set afire or blasted. Close by Dniepropetrovsk the huge Dnieperstroy Dam, pride of Soviet engineering, had been blown up. Cities had been laid waste and much of their populations evacuated. The peoples left behind formed guerrilla units that sabotaged and assassinated.

The course of the war had been crippling to Russia, for the loss of sources of supply, in the Ukraine and Donetz Basin particularly, could not help but weaken the war effort. Allies could only partly compensate for this loss by sending in war materials. The loss of manpower had been great also, even to a nation with Russia's vast population. Yet at this moment the Germany's 1941 advance was at high tide. A new war phase was about to begin.



# ERRATUM

Maps 40 and 41 are transposed.



# WINTER WAR IN RUSSIA

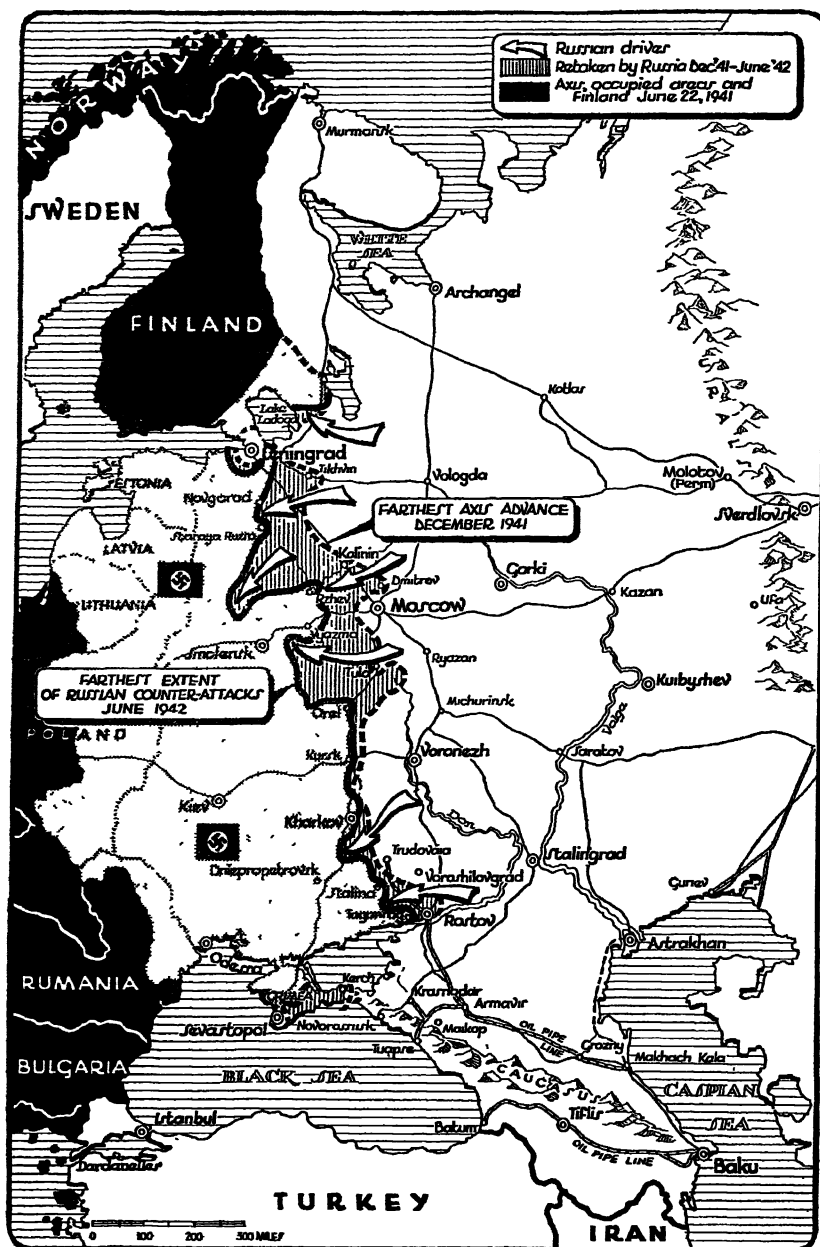
HITLER'S INVASION of Russia was compared, inevitably, with Napoleon's, and there were many historical parallels. Would these include a retreat from Moscow? The anti-Axis nations waited hopefully, though the Nazis, after overrunning 527,500 square miles of Russian territory, fell short of the Moscow goal. Then at the end of November the Russians counter-attacked; the course of the fighting was reversed.

Rostov-on-the-Don, the year's highwater mark of the Axis advance in the Ukraine, was retaken by the Russians. Along the hundreds of miles of battle-line, counter-attack became general. Leningrad was partially relieved. The menace to Moscow was lifted, and in great stretches of the front the Germans began to retire. Withdrawal in some instances reached 175 miles in depth, and ultimately the Russians had retaken 100,000 square miles of their territory.

Fighting proceeded in the worst winter in generations. Cold, snow, and ice held the fronts. Bitter winds swept down the lines where the Germans, apparently poorly prepared for nature's onslaught, suffered cruelly, the more perhaps because they had expected to spend the winter in cities like Leningrad, Kalinin, and Moscow. Censorship veiled the exact character of the fighting. It was not clear whether the Axis armies had retreated because of Russian pressure, or to seek warmer winter quarters, or to enjoy the protection of partially fortified lines while reorganizing for the spring campaigns. The withdrawal in any event gave the Russians a breathing space.

Both sides, anticipating the laggard Russian spring, prepared for the war's next phase. What they were doing remained largely hidden. As Hanson W. Baldwin wrote in *The New York Times*: 'There is no clear picture of these preparations, of the forces available, the strength of either side, the condition of the opposing armies, or even the exact location of the front lines.' Only this was certain: There was no stalemate; new offensives were in the offing.

# 41 RUSSIAN CAMPAIGNS



# SUMMER 1942

SPRING with its sun and drying winds comes late to the Russian plains that winter leaves locked in mud. But the spring of 1942 had long dried plain and steppe before the Axis launched its anticipated 1942 offensive. Unlike the drives of 1941 the attack did not encompass the hundreds of miles of front. It was concentrated in south Russia.

Axis strategy appeared to have a variety of objectives: (1) To take the great Black Sea naval base of Sevastopol and the Crimea, which would provide one entrance to the Caucasus; (2) to capture Rostov, where the pipeline from the Caucasus reaches the river artery of the Don; (3) to capture Stalingrad on the Volga, and thus break the Russian supply line to the outside world by way of the Caspian and Iran; (4) to win the oil fields of the Caucasus, fields that are vital to Russia and that would supply the Axis war machine with essential fuel; (5) to cut the Russian army of the Caucasus from the other Russian forces.

In fighting as bitter as any the world had ever known, the Axis drove to attain these objectives. Sevastopol, besieged for eight months, fell a battered ruin into Axis hands. The Crimea was lost. Rostov was taken and the Don crossed. While Axis spearheads pointed toward Stalingrad, others turned toward the Caucasus and oil. Tanks and truck-borne troops swept across the level Kuban plains to Maikop and Krasnodar. Others drove toward Grozny and the Caspian. The smoke of burning towns and villages, of oil fields and wheat lands set afire, hung over the battling armies. How many men fought and died was a matter of estimate.

Axis drives into Russia ran always into the problem of space. The size of the country, its distances, its great population, all made difficult the forcing of a decision. Retreat, scorched earth, guerrilla fighting, and stiff resistance all the while, these tactics the Russians made the most of while they drew the Axis forces deeper into the country. Space was a Russian ally. Time might be also, if resistance could be prolonged until Russia's partners could strike in full might.



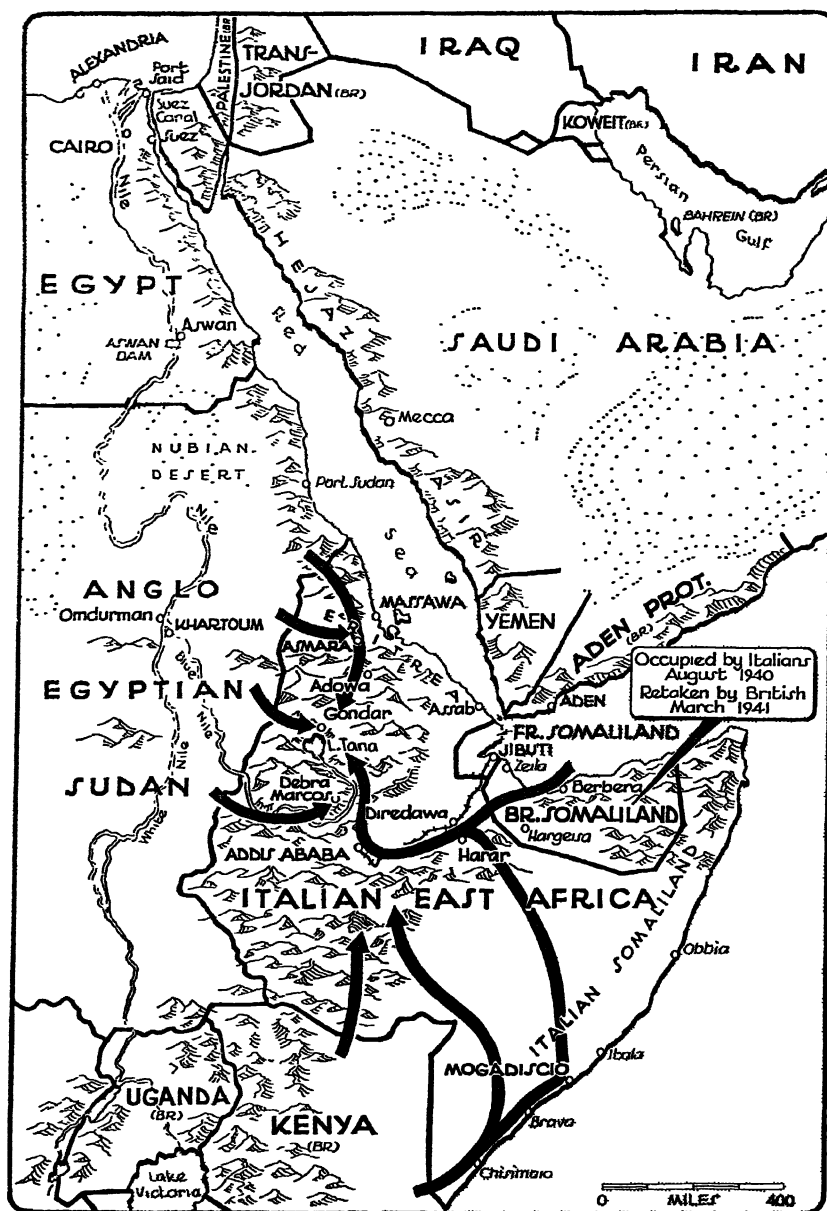
# AFRICA AND THE WAR

AFRICA, second largest of the continents, has been a hunting-ground of the powers for almost three-quarters of a century. The scramble for African colonies in the nineteenth century laid one of the powder trains that exploded in the First World War. In 1914, Britain, France, and Germany were the chief colonial powers in Africa, though Belgium, Portugal, Italy and Spain had to be numbered in the concert. Versailles ended Germany's African dominion.

In the post-Versailles years Britain and France were chief among the rulers of Africa, although Italy's conquest of Ethiopia rounded out the Italian colonial domain that had been building since 1869. Egypt, British-controlled hitherto, was granted nominal independence, while remaining tied to Britain militarily and diplomatically. For the powers Africa, as from the beginning, remained a vast region from which were taken such natural resources and raw materials as gold, rubber, vegetable oils, grain, and metals.

The fall of France threatened to place the French colonial empire in Axis hands, a threat that spelled greater Axis control of the southern coast of the Mediterranean, Axis possession of the French naval bases at Casablanca in Morocco, Dakar in West Africa, and Madagascar in the Indian Ocean. The Allied lifelines through the South Atlantic and around the Cape of Good Hope were endangered by the possibility Axis U-boats would operate from these bases. The worst was avoided, but the danger persisted even though French Equatorial Africa broke with Vichy to join the forces of the Fighting French under General Charles de Gaulle.

As the war continued, an American-built airway was opened across Equatorial Africa to the Sudan and Egypt. In what had been Italian Eritrea—in British hands after 1941—a vast supply base was constructed by Americans for war purposes in the whole Middle East, an arsenal of supply and assembly in a region almost devoid of industry.



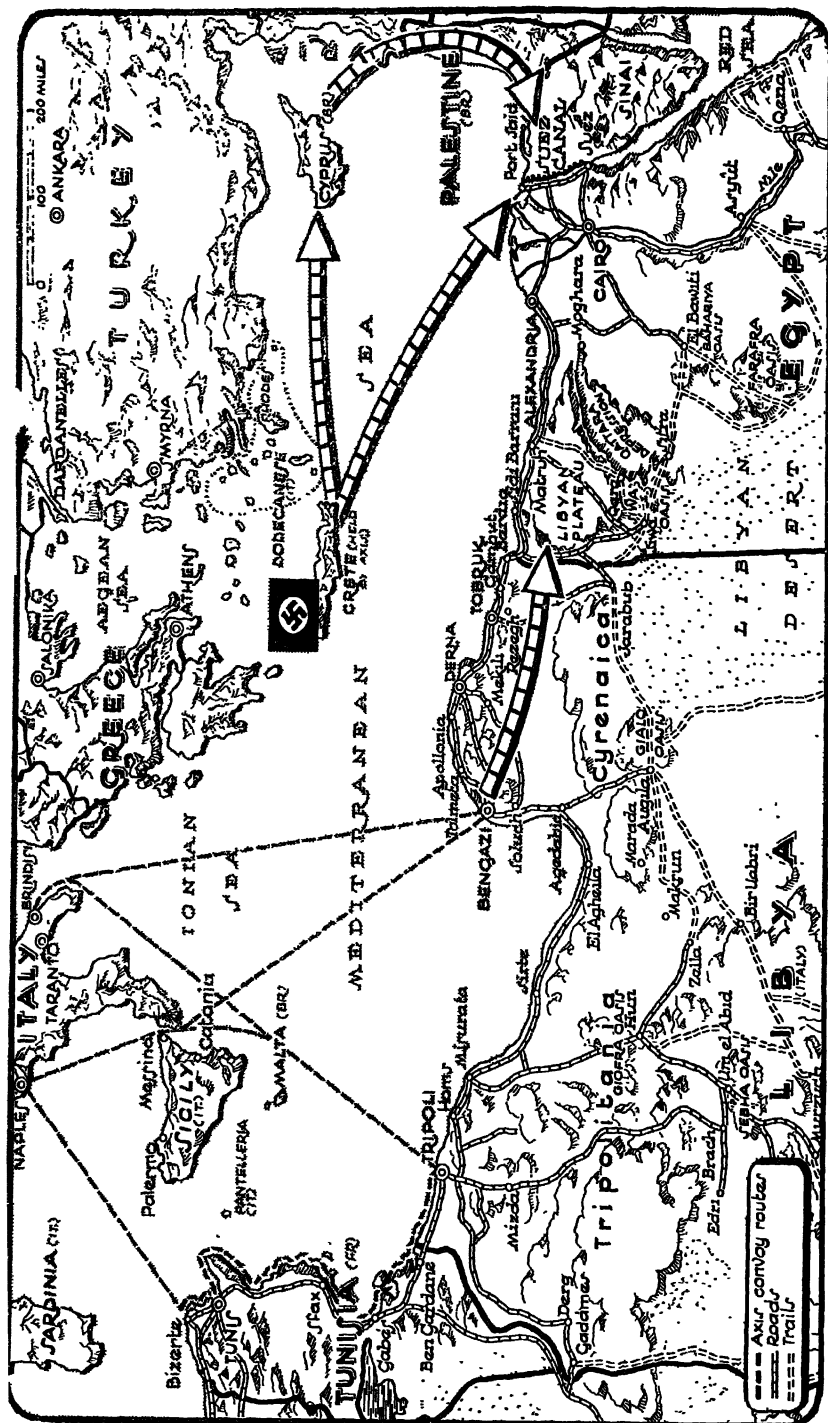
# IN EAST AFRICA

ITALIAN EAST AFRICA had been built slowly with blood, sweat, and tears over the decades after Italy in 1869 acquired the Red Sea port of Assab. The Italians pushed into the hinterland to round out a desert colony, fought the Ethiopians, and in the 1890's were defeated. Farther south, on the coast of the Indian Ocean, Somaliland was acquired in the first part of the century. Ethiopia's final conquest in 1936 made it possible to establish one great colony which, it was hoped, would provide the mother country with essential raw materials and open lands for settlement. The war ended those hopes.

After Italy entered the war in June 1940, she had for a time everything her own way in East Africa. British Somaliland was taken. Italian and native troops crossed into the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and British Kenya. The triumph was short-lived, for the Italian forces were cut off from all sources of reinforcement and supply and in January 1941 British troops, in large part colonial, took the offensive.

From Kenya the British armies advanced, overrunning Somaliland quickly, and invading Ethiopia. Other contingents struck from the Sudan at Eritrea and Ethiopia. Neither mountain and desert terrain or climate long halted the British invaders. On April 6, 1941, they took the Ethiopian capital of Addis Ababa, preparing the way for the return of Ethiopia's Emperor Haile Selassie from exile. Eritrea fell. Only Gondar in northern Ethiopia held out to the last; by the end of the year that stronghold too was in British hands.

The conquest removed a constant threat to Allied communications in the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. It removed also the possible use of East Africa as a base of operations in some grandiose scheme for pinching off the Sudan and Egypt by simultaneous moves from Libya and East Africa. The conquest also released troops badly needed on other hard-pressed fighting fronts.



# 44 AXIS THREATS TO EGYPT

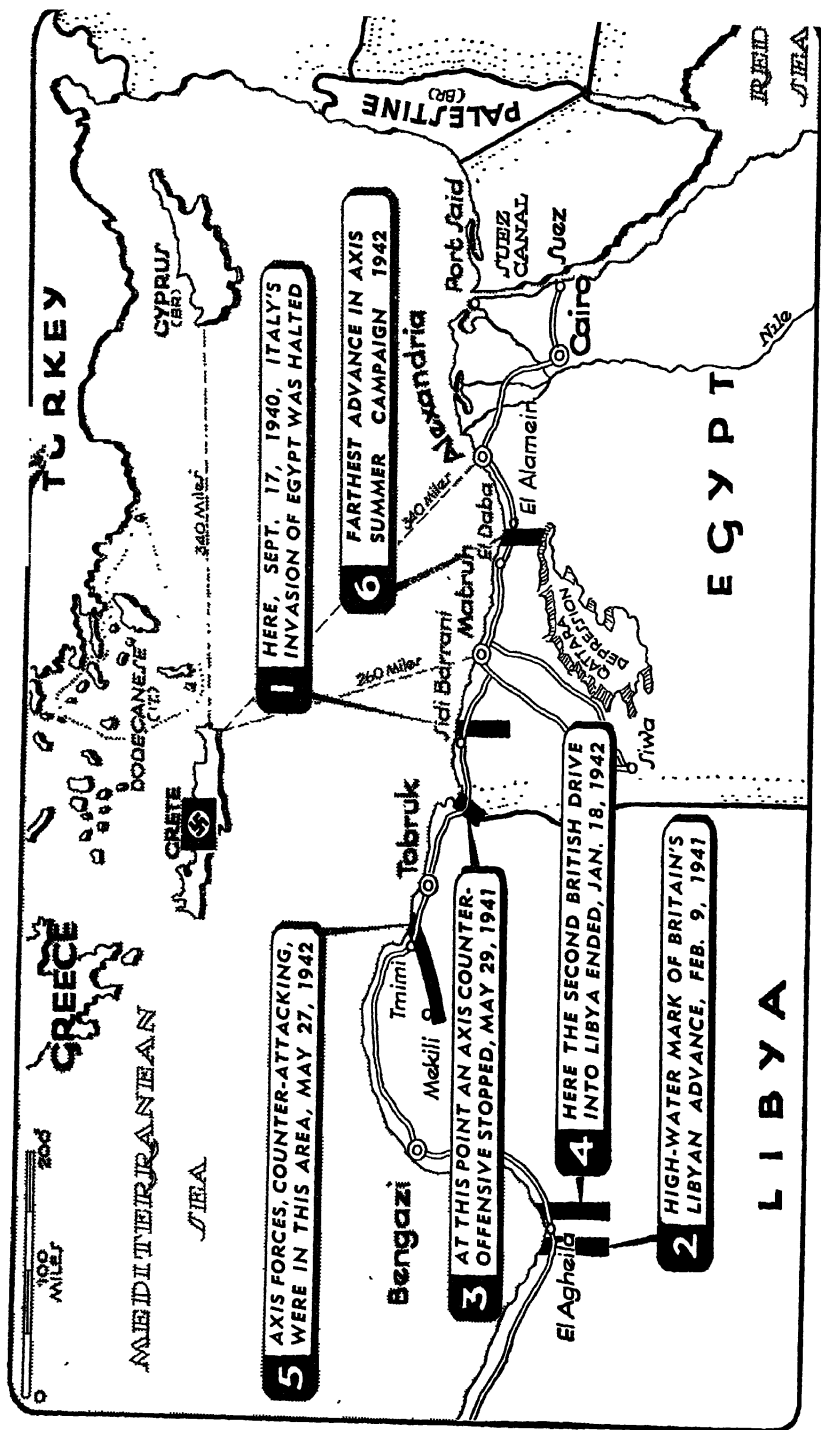
THE ANCIENT LAND of the Pharaohs, once part of the Turkish Empire, a British protectorate from 1914 to 1922, a junior ally of Britain in the years thereafter, is an Arab land of only about 15,000,000 persons. Much of its area is desert, though the fertile Nile Valley grows the famous cotton of Egypt, wheat, corn, and other grains. The country's importance in time of war stems from its location, for the 103 miles of the Suez Canal lie in Egyptian territory, and that canal since its opening in 1869 has been a principal link in Britain's system of imperial communications.

Under the Anglo-Egyptian treaty of 1936, Egypt's defense was guaranteed by Britain, and thus even in time of peace some British troops were in Egypt. Britain was granted also the use of Alexandria and Port Said as naval bases. Egypt tended to become a bastion in Britain's defense of Suez and her whole position in the eastern Mediterranean and the Middle East.

Italy's entrance into the war opened immediately

the possibility of Italian attack on Egypt from Libya, taken from Turkey in 1911 and made an integral part of the Italian Kingdom. To prevent the success of such an offensive became an immediate strategic problem for the British. Axis advance through the Balkans in the spring of 1941, and the seizure of Crete in particular, opened the possibility of attack upon Egypt from another direction, by sea and air, or by a great flanking movement dependent upon possible Axis seizure of Syria for a base.

The danger became greater after the fall of France, for the French collapse removed not only the aid of the French fleet, upon which the British had depended in the Mediterranean, but ended also any likelihood that Britain in Egypt and the Middle East would have the help of the French army that had been massed in Syria. British imperial forces and supplies were thereupon hurried to Egypt, so far as they could be spared from other sectors. Late in 1940 what was to be the prolonged Battle of Egypt began.



# 45 THE BATTLE FOR EGYPT

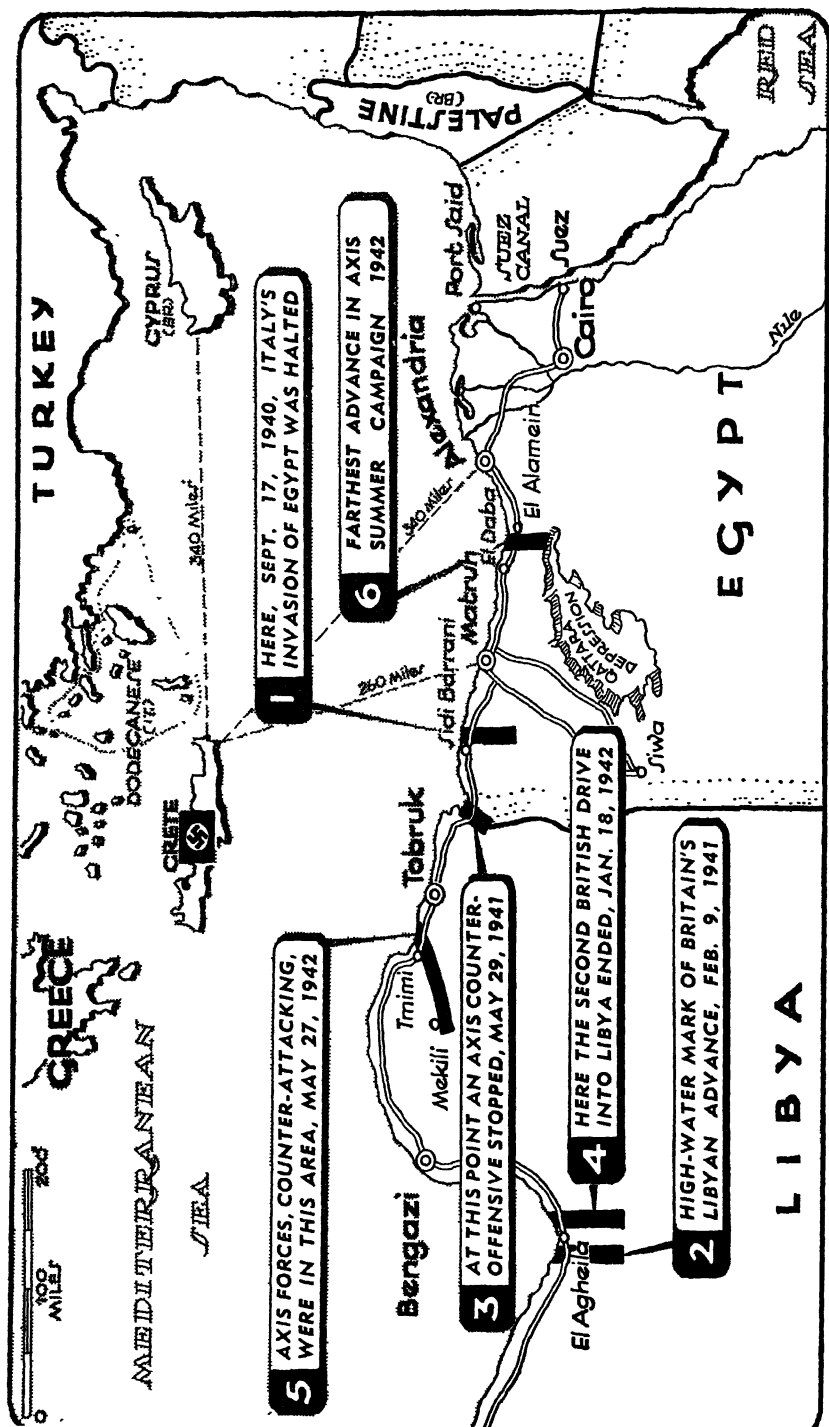
DESERT FIGHTING with the machines of modern war had hardly been known until the Italians, in September 1940, crossed the Libyan frontier to open the Battle for Egypt. Bitter experience soon taught soldiers and commanders what it was like to fight under a broiling sun, in sandstorms, in trackless wastes. Sand clogged motors as well as men's lungs. Heat slowed many a skirmish between truck-borne troops, between tank contingents.

Supply remained a constant problem. By sea and air the Axis ferried troops and material from Europe to North Africa. Britain and her allies depended upon sea routes from India and Australia and around the Cape of Good Hope. In the desert itself supplies of all sorts, including water, had to be carried long distances, and often over trails exposed to strafing from the air. To knock out supply routes by land and sea became a constant tactic of the prolonged battle.

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Once more there was a halt, the battle's decision delayed. Once more—in November 1941—the British attacked, and this time as before they cleared the Axis from Cyrenaica. Neither side seemed able to attain great enough superiority in strength to attain a clear-cut victory, and then the Axis in January, stronger than previously, resumed the offensive, retaking part of Cyrenaica. In June the German-led armies hit again, and this time advanced to within 65 miles of Alexandria, where the British and allied forces held them.



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# 46 AMERICAN NEUTRALITY, 1939

THE UNITED STATES, when war came to Europe in September 1939, was restricted in its foreign relations by the Neutrality Act, designed by its framers in 1935 to keep the country out of war. The law laid an embargo on munitions sales to belligerents. It sought to keep American shipping from war zones and American money from warring nations. It kept American citizens from sailing on belligerent ships. The Roosevelt Administration had never really liked the law. War in Europe caused the Administration to seek its revision.

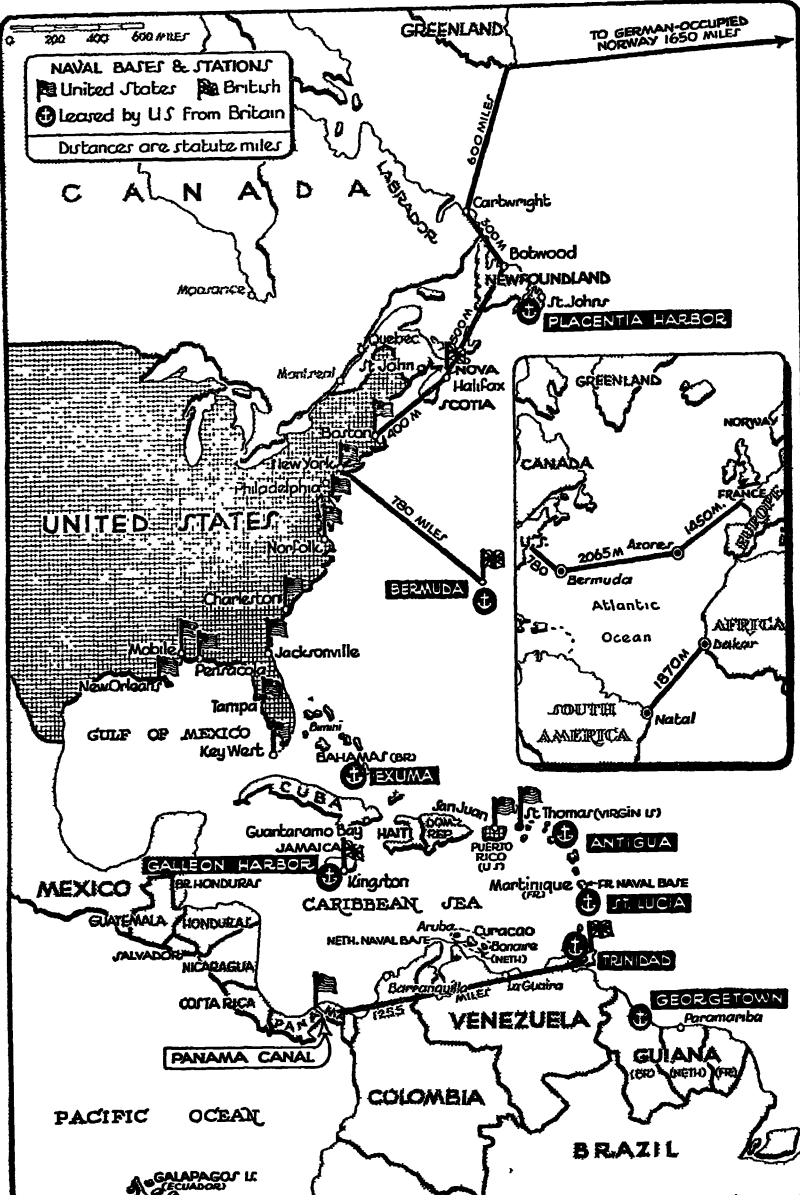
Lifting the arms embargo was the core of the revision. The Administration wanted to be able to sell arms to Britain and France, where its sympathies lay, for to their fate it believed was tied also the fate of the United States. Therefore it proposed that arms might be sold to belligerents if they would pay for them first and take them home in their own ships—'cash and carry.' Since Germany in 1939 had small

chance of buying American arms and taking them to Europe, the advantage lay with Britain and France and the letter of neutrality was retained.

Cash and carry became law. Under the revised Neutrality Act and the proclamations carrying it into effect, American shipping was barred from zones around the British Isles, off the Atlantic coast of France, the North Sea, and the Baltic. American vessels were also barred from ports in eastern Canada and Newfoundland, the French Mediterranean coast, the coasts of French North Africa. American citizens, except under certain regulations, could not travel to these areas on belligerent vessels and aircraft.

The revised law—one effect was unemployment among American seamen—became for the moment the basis of American relations with the belligerents. It fitted, however imperfectly, American sentiment, which was largely determined only to stay out of Europe's struggle.

THE UNITED STATES

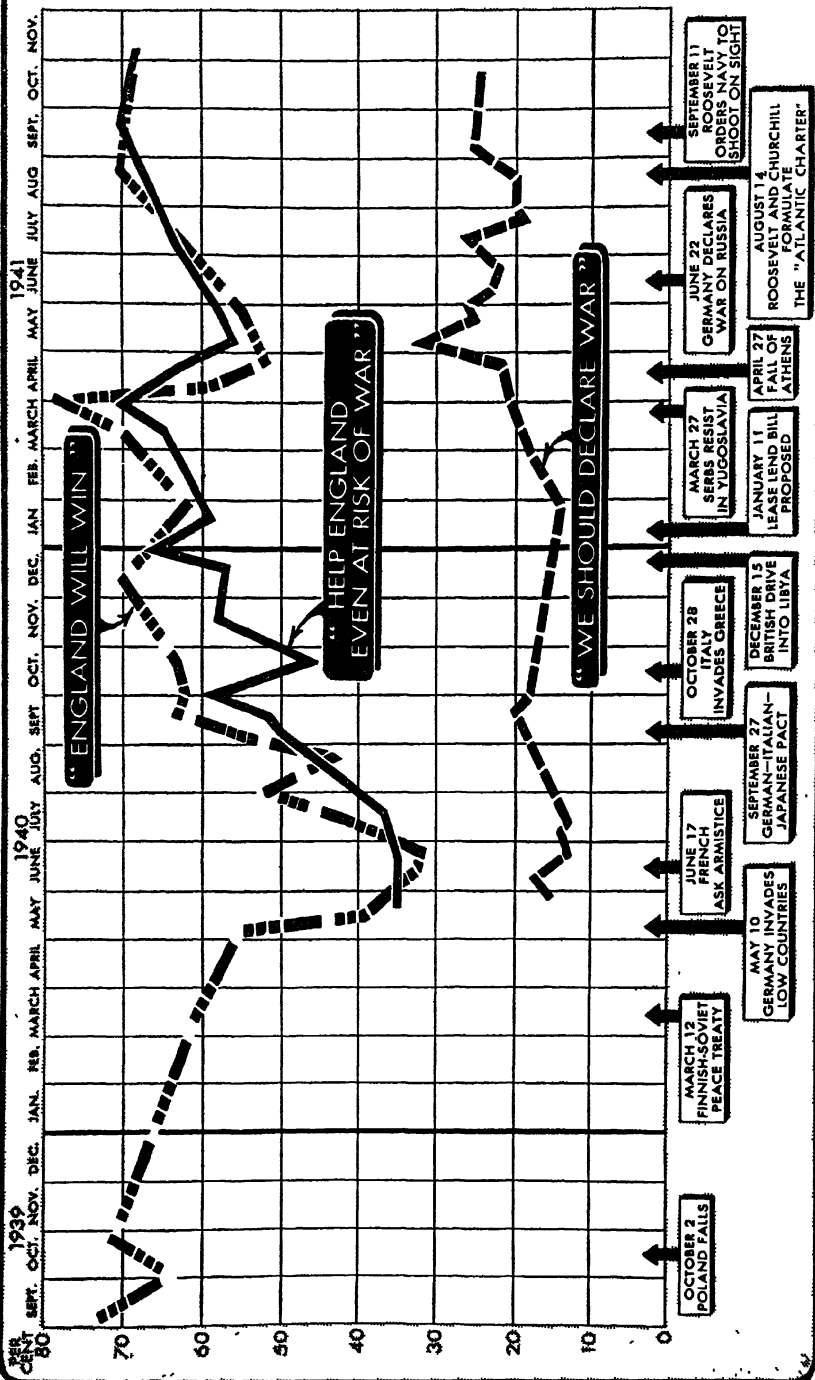


# AND BRITAIN

A DESTROYER, painted the gray of war, steamed out of Boston harbor on September 4, 1940. She was the first of 50 over-age destroyers the United States had exchanged with Great Britain for naval and air bases on British possessions in the New World. Henceforth, the United States was to have bases in Newfoundland, Bermuda, the Bahamas, Jamaica, Antigua, St. Lucia, Trinidad, and British Guiana. 'This is the most important action in the reinforcement of our national defense,' President Roosevelt said, 'that has been taken since the Louisiana Purchase.'

The destroyers gave the hard-pressed British new weapons in their struggle to keep open vital shipping lanes. The bases gave Americans new outposts for defense of the American mainland and the strategic approaches to the Panama Canal. This move came in a period when the United States was admittedly extending to Britain 'all aid short of war.' American munitions and planes were being sent to the British on a large scale, though still under the cash-and-carry terms of the Neutrality Act.

On January 10, 1941, President Roosevelt proposed to go still farther. In a special message he outlined what came to be known as 'Lend-Lease.' It in effect wiped out the restrictions of the Neutrality Act, for it gave the President the power to 'sell, transfer, lease, lend or otherwise dispose of' munitions and defense articles to any power whose defense was deemed 'vital to the defense of the United States.' Under existing circumstances, such a power obviously was Britain. Aid had reached all-out proportions though still short of war. On March 11, 1941, Lend-Lease became law. The United States had adopted a policy designed to make itself an 'arsenal of democracy.'



# 48 AMERICAN OPINION ON THE WAR

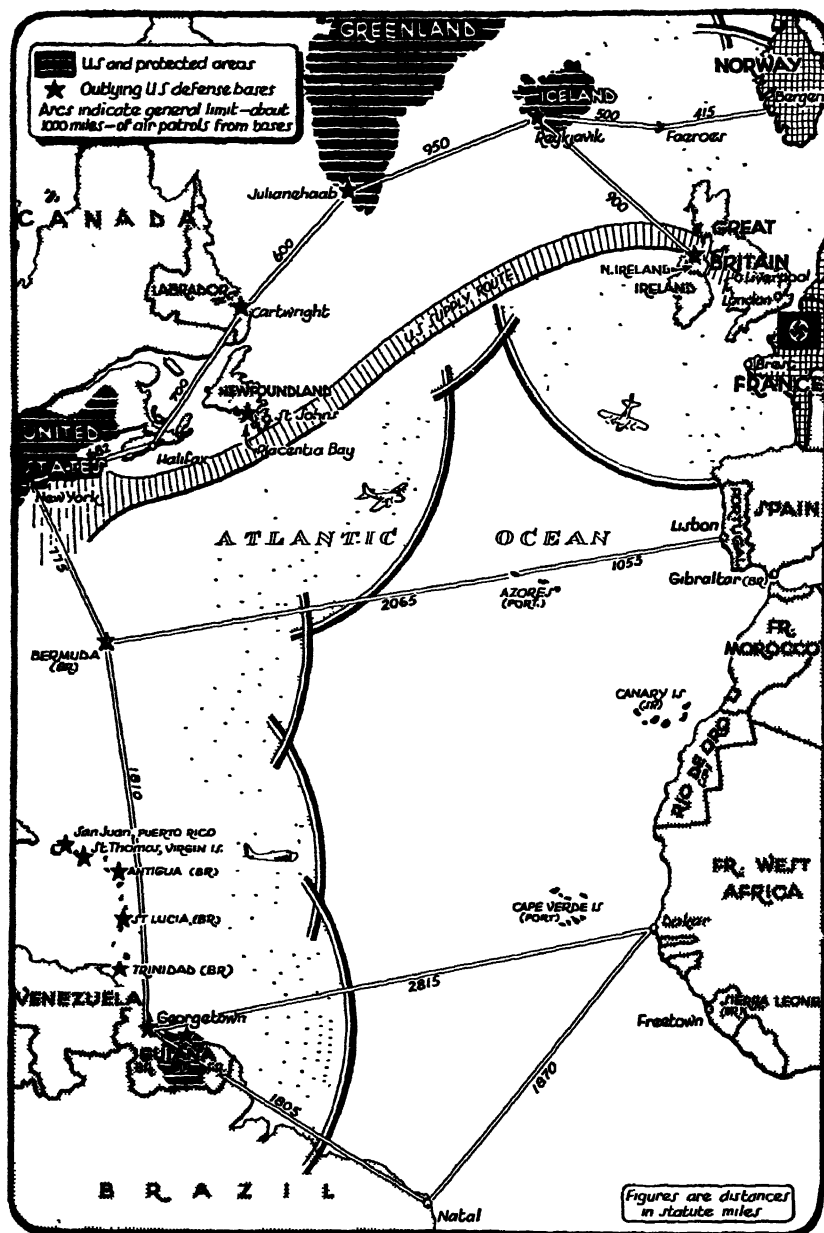
THE UNITED STATES in September 1939 made no bones of the fact that it regarded war in Europe as chiefly Europe's concern. Most citizens wanted to keep out of that war, although approximately half of them felt even then that ultimately the country would be drawn into the conflict. Sentiment fluctuated as the war proceeded, but gradually the prevailing opinion, however noisy isolationist groups might be, held that the United States would become a participant. By the spring of 1941, when aid to Britain had become so extensive that the country remained a non-belligerent in little but name, nearly 80 per cent of the nation foresaw war.

Samples of opinion, taken by the Gallup polls, showed other trends. For example, 10 per cent or less of the people felt the country should declare war on Germany. Yet more than half, by May 1941, agreed it was more important Britain should win than that the United States remain at peace. Almost as many

persons as believed the nation would be drawn into the war maintained that American aid to the British should be increased.

The fluctuations of opinion, affected though they were by the war's progress, seemed unrelated to the measures the United States was taking to help Britain. Shortly following the September 1940 lease of bases on British possessions, for example, the percentage of Americans who believed the country would get into the war dropped below 50. Introduction of the Lend Bill in January 1941 did not push the percentage much higher than it had been for some time—about 65.

By May 1941, whatever the shifts in opinion had been, sentiment was obviously strong enough for the Administration to take strong measures in its policy of aiding Britain. Those measures were taken in subsequent months. American neutrality, never wholly real, became myth.



# THE ATLANTIC, 1939-41

WORLD WAR II was only a few hours old when the British liner *Athenia* was sunk by a German submarine off northern Scotland. The Battle of the Atlantic had begun, for henceforth Britain was destined to constant struggle to keep open her shipping lanes, her lifelines, to Canada, the United States, South America, Africa, and the Pacific. These lanes, converging on the British Isles from all the world, could not be closed lest Britain die for lack of food and the materials of war.

British surface craft patrolled ceaselessly for U-boats and surface raiders. British planes guarded coastal waters. Long convoys, herded by men-of-war, crossed the oceans, and yet the shipping toll remained threatening, however fluctuating. The fall of France, depriving Britain of French naval aid, made a bad situation worse.

The United States, after September 1939, maintained a 'neutrality patrol' off its coasts. What the planes and naval ships of this patrol saw was presumably told the British. Extension of American interests by the destroyer-base deal of September 1940 heightened this form of American aid.

The United States in April 1941 was ready to go farther. That month Greenland, a Danish colony, was taken under American protection lest German bases be established there. A new American outpost was under way. Three months later Americans were in Iceland, relieving the British who had been in occupation since the previous year. Meantime, the American neutrality patrol had been extended far into the Atlantic, 2,300 miles or more, and apparently American ships were escorting British vessels to Iceland from the New World.

All efforts of offense and defense had failed to decide the war at sea. British, Allied, and neutral losses by the end of July 1941, when figures were issued for the last time, amounted to 7,058,677 tons, a fearful toll. Not all losses were in the Atlantic, but there the battle was waged in its greatest fury.



# ORDER, SEPTEMBER 1939

JAPAN, restless, imperialistic, first sought to burst her island bounds nearly a half century ago by a war with China. The Japanese were victorious, but the Powers, who also were interested in China, snatched the fruits of victory. Not until 1905, after a war with Russia, did Japan acquire a foothold on the Asiatic mainland. Korea was annexed in 1910. A march had begun toward the objective of a Japan dominant in East Asia.

After the First World War, though the Powers prevented Japan from obtaining a dominant position in China, Germany's Pacific Island became Japanese—strategic outposts in Japan's defense system. Seizure of Manchuria in 1931 gave Japan a vast colonial domain as well as a position threatening China and Siberia on the flank.

A new phase of Japan's expansion opened in 1937 with a war against China. The poorly trained and ill-equipped Chinese proved no match for the invaders, who captured Peiping, Shanghai, Nanking, Hankow, and Canton, all of them great cities of the Chinese nation. Yet the war went on. Guerrillas fought the Japanese. Chinese armies, based on the interior, resisted as best they could, fighting often with war stuffs sent from the United States, Britain, and Russia.

In these conquests Japan was seeking what her leaders called the 'Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere.' Nations of the West would be excluded. Japan would be the dominant power, the real ruler and exploiter. Control of East Asia would supply the Japanese with the vital raw materials wanted—tin, rubber, cotton, oil—and with foodstuffs. To win to this position, the Japanese had to exclude other powers from the Far East. They had also to gain a geographic and strategic position that would guarantee their dominion. How this might be done was outlined in speeches by Japanese statesmen, who foretold three stages of expansion as shown in the accompanying map.



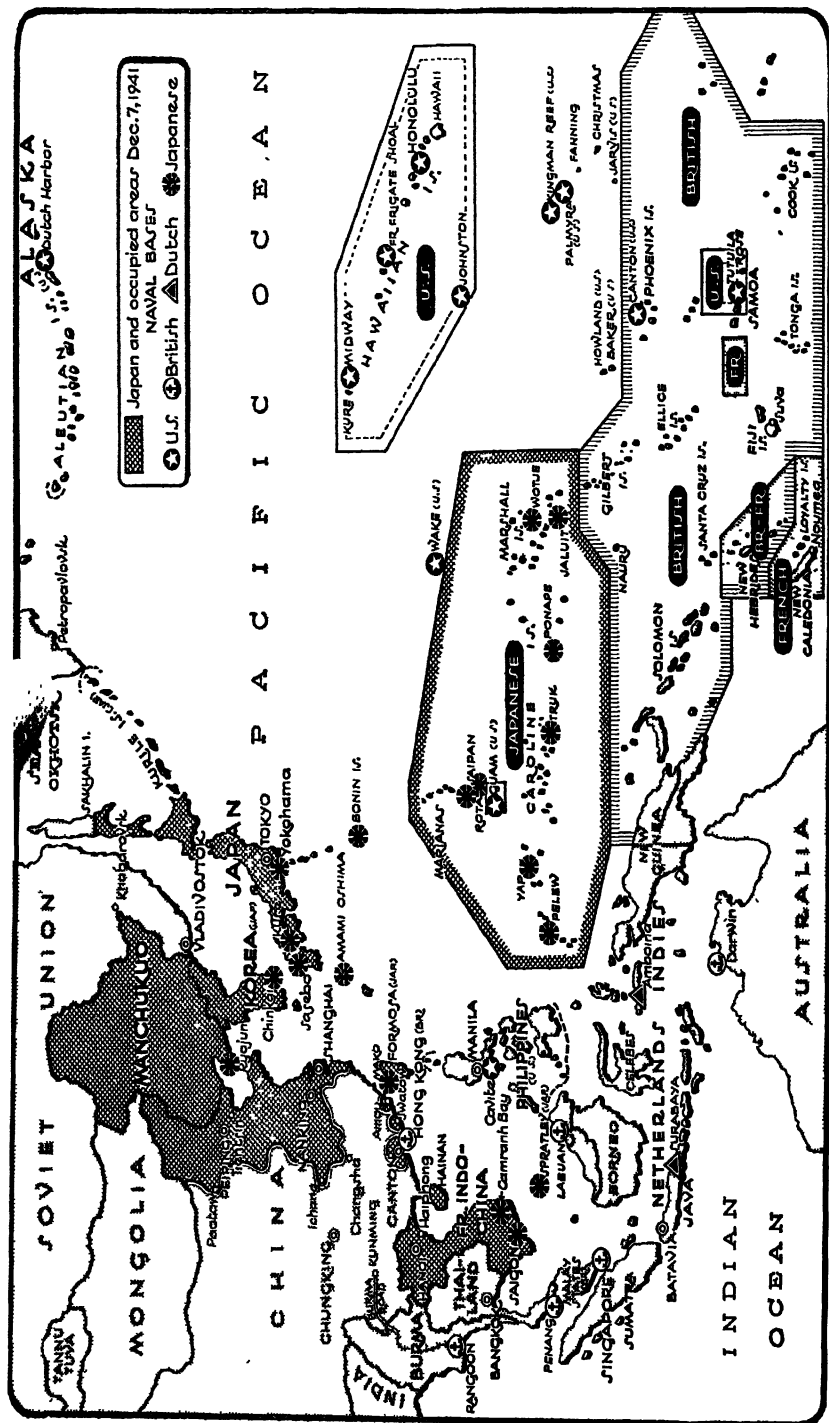
# DECEMBER 7, 1941

DIPLOMATS moved about with dignity beneath the great crystal chandeliers. Members of the press watched them in the vast, gilded expanse of the Hall of Ambassadors in Berlin's Reich Chancellery. Japan was signing with Germany and Italy the Tripartite Pact forecasting ultimate war partnership among the three. The date was September 27, 1940.

Japan's entrance into the Second World War seemed then remote. Her struggle with China was continuing, seemingly getting nowhere in particular. France had just granted the Japanese the right to send troops and air forces into Indo-China, the French colony that flanks the routes from the Indies and Malaya to the Philippines and China proper. Japan apparently could expand in East Asia without fighting the great Powers; they appeared to be occupied elsewhere.

Yet in the months after the signing of the Tripartite Pact, the Western and non-Axis powers took a stronger tone with Japan. Both the United States and Britain were outspoken in their support of China, emphasizing their support by the sending of supplies and advisers. Garrisons in the Philippines, in Hong Kong, and in Malaya were increased, and the United States warned its nationals to quit the Far East, that a storm was rising. Japanese attempts to win trade concessions in the Netherlands Indies failed. The United States started what amounted to a virtual trade embargo of Japan.

The anti-Japanese moves by the Western Powers were warnings. But Japan took small heed. Her penetration of Indo-China grew apace. Thailand was drawn into the Japanese orbit. The possibility of war in the Pacific loomed ever larger as the Western nations—Britain, the Netherlands, and the United States—drew closer together to meet what might come.



# 52 THE PACIFIC A WAR ZONE

GREATEST of the world's oceans, the Pacific covers approximately 70,000,000 square miles compared with the 41,000,000 of the Atlantic. It is farther from San Francisco to Honolulu—2,402 miles—than from St. Johns, Newfoundland, to Brest, France—2,200 miles. Yet from San Francisco to Honolulu is less than half the distance from California to Tokyo. From California to Australia is approximately 8,000 miles. Manila is more than 2,000 miles from Tokyo, Singapore another 1,500 miles distant.

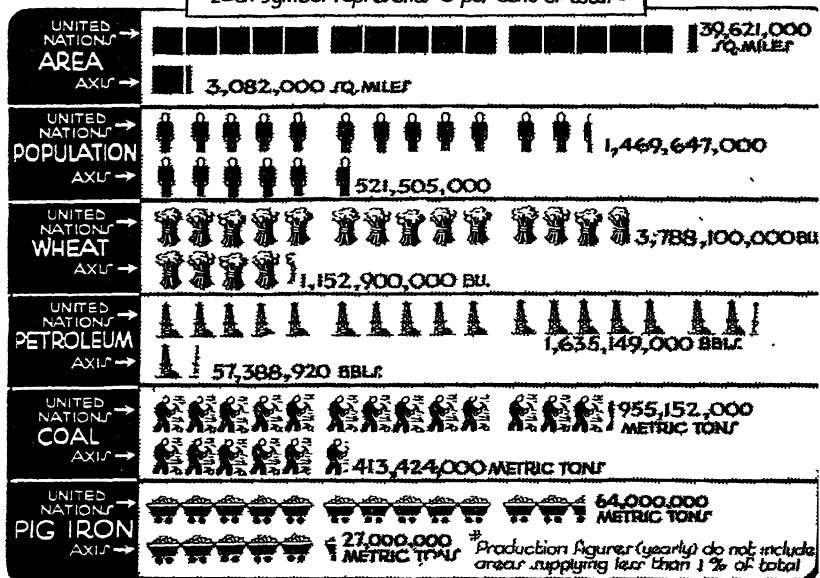
In this vast region of ocean, broken with strategically placed islands, by land masses like the East Indies and Australia, the war of the Pacific was waged after December 7, 1941. Distance affected the nature of the war that started by surprise Japanese assaults on Hawaii, Hong Kong, and other possessions of the Western nations. On the one hand was Japan, able to fight relatively close to bases of supply, enjoying, thanks to previous conquests, interior

lines of communications and positions on the flanks of her enemies. The United Nations had none of these advantages.

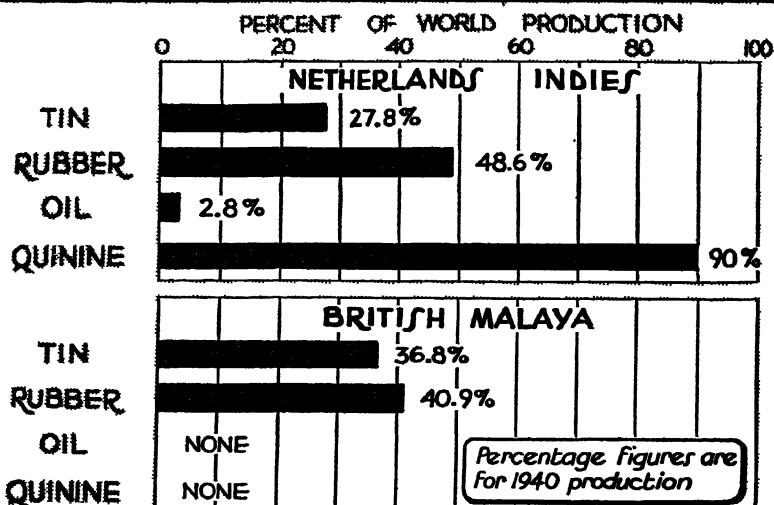
All were distant from their centers of power, and their outposts could be strengthened only with difficulty. British Hong Kong was isolated. Malaya and the Netherlands East Indies had to rely on existing garrisons and accumulated war supplies. The Philippines were equally isolated from reinforcement. Australia's position could not be regarded as strong. To hold these outposts meant sending, in most instances through enemy-controlled waters, great convoys. Neither Britain nor the United States was prepared for such an effort when the blow fell. Only slowly could strength be gathered, and time was of the essence. The initiative therefore remained with Japan throughout the first phases of the spreading War of the Pacific that transformed Europe's war into the war of the world.

## OUR RESOURCES — AND THEIR

Each symbol represents 5 per cent of total \*



## VITAL RESOURCES IN THE INDIES AREA



# THE BELLIGERENTS

THE CONFLICT that began in Europe in September 1939 had been called World War II from its very beginning. It became indeed a second World War, far greater than the first, when the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, brought the United States and parts of Latin America into the struggle. The war then became a test of strength between the United Nations and the Axis.

So far as statistics showed, the United Nations had far more abundant resources than the Axis on which to draw. Total population of the United Nations, if countries friendly to this side were included, amounted to 1,469,647,000, compared to the 521,505,000 of the Axis and its satellites. The area of the United Nations totaled 39,621,000 square miles compared to the 3,082,000 of the foe. Figures for materials essential to war-making were still more impressive.

The United Nations controlled 69 per cent of the world's wheat, 86 per cent of its oil, 67 per cent of its coal, 64 per cent of its iron, 50 per cent of its sugar. British Malaya and the Netherlands East Indies together accounted for 89 per cent of the world's rubber production. More than half the world's tin came from approximately this same area. The Indies produced 90 per cent of the world's supply of quinine. Half the world's supply of tungsten, essential in hardening steel, was to be found in the Far Eastern regions under United Nations control; another 20 per cent came from the New World.

Translated into war effort, these statistics had still greater significance, for the United Nations, the United States, Britain, and Russia in particular, were industrialized powers, ready to convert their peacetime industries to the making of war materials. In the long run this industrial might seemed bound to count, even though the Axis nations with their limited resources, were also building war machines night and day. Estimates placed the war production of the United Nations in 1942 at 60 per cent of the world's total. The Axis, though trailing with 40 per cent, had had a head start.



# 54 BELLIGERENT ACCESS TO OIL

OIL is in a sense the lifeblood of modern warfare. Without it tanks cannot rumble over the earth or planes take the air. Military transport depends upon oil. Industry cannot function without it. Absence of oil spells quick defeat for any nation that takes up arms.

There are three great oil-producing areas of the world. Chief in importance, producing annually 1,700,000,000 barrels of the world's 2,149,400,000 total, is the region located in North and South America. The region of the Caucasus and the Middle East comes next, followed by that of the East Indies. Together these regions account for 2,080,800,000 barrels of the world's production.

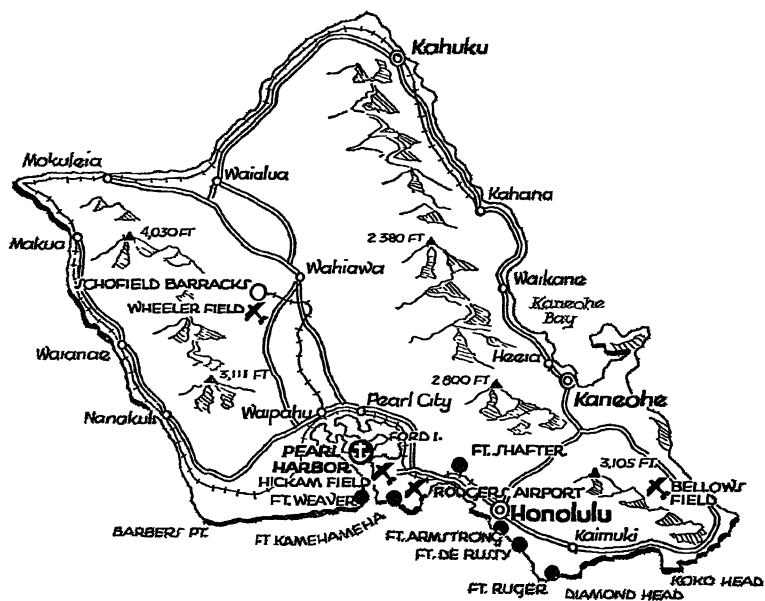
When war became world-wide in December 1941, the Axis nations had access to none of these regions. The United Nations controlled them all. The Axis, thirsty for oil, depended upon reserves built up in time of peace, on oil seized in conquered countries, on synthetics and the small supplies obtained from

minor oil regions under their control. To win access to the great oil regions was therefore an immediate Axis objective.

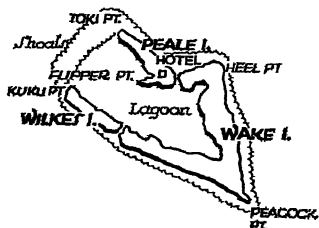
At the same time that the Axis sought to win its way to oil, it sought to shut the United Nations from the oil regions. Conquest was one method. Another was to slash at the shipping lanes of the United Nations, to torpedo and bomb tankers carrying oil from Texas to Britain, for example, or from Venezuela to Allied lands overseas. Writing in *The New York Times* in March 1942, a French oil expert said the Axis was seeking to 'deprive the United Nations of two of their strategic oil resources [the East Indies and the Caucasus-Middle East], while at the same time subjecting their tanker fleets to intensive submarine warfare. The Axis is dreaming of the day when the Allies will no longer have their planes flying, their convoys sailing the high seas and their navies patrolling the oceans.'

## OAHU

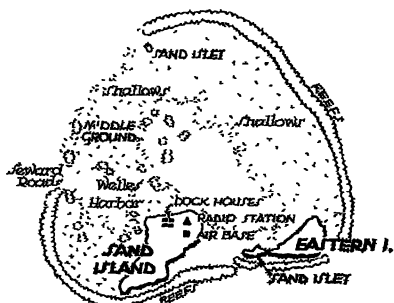
0 5 10 MILES



## WAKE



## MIDWAY



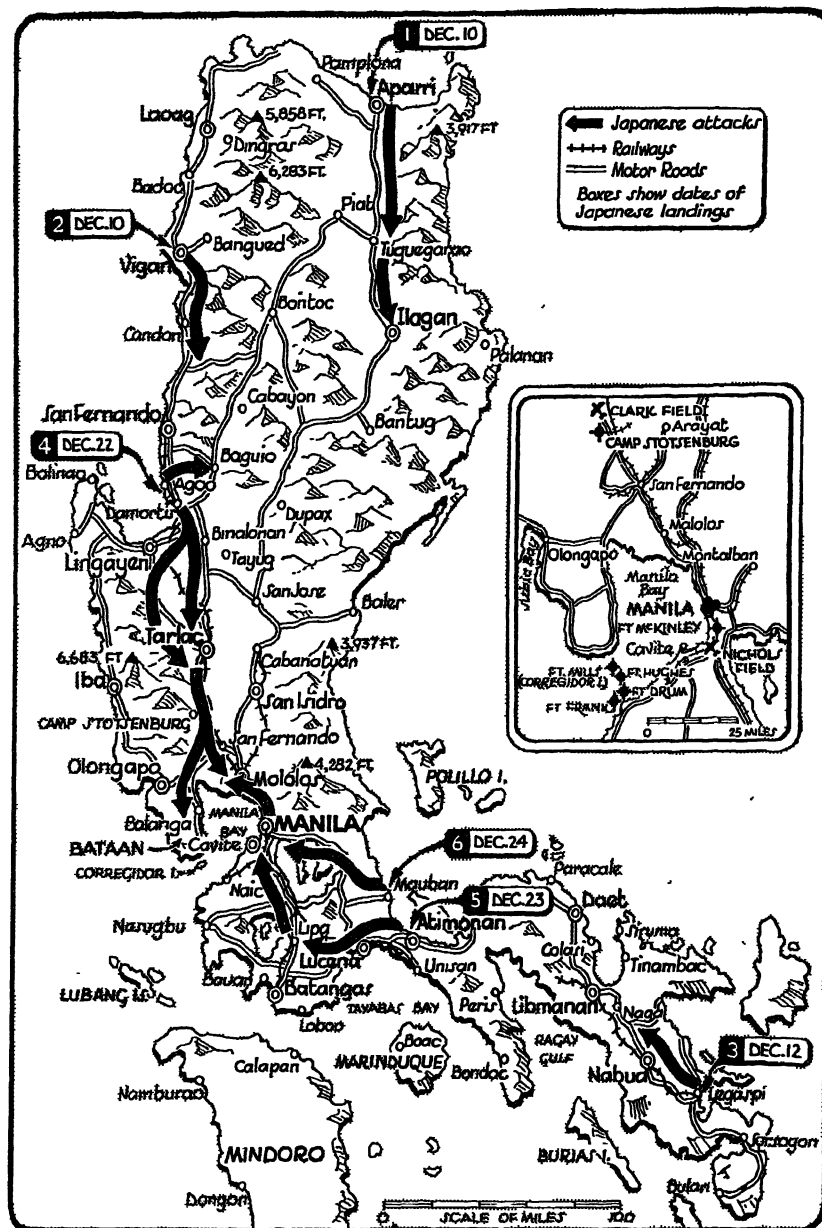
# HAWAII, WAKE, MIDWAY

THE UNITED STATES over the years has gained possession of a series of Pacific islands stretching toward Asia, and of these the Hawaiian group, 2,400 miles from San Francisco, is vitally important. There are 20 islands in the Hawaiians. On one of them, Oahu, has been built a great military establishment, the 'Gibraltar of the Pacific.' Its center is the Pearl Harbor naval base, at which the Japanese struck on December 7, 1941.

In the scheme of American defense in the Pacific, Hawaii is crucial, a key point in a system that extends from the Panama Canal to the Aleutians. The Japanese blow of December 7, therefore, was a blow at the solar plexus. It left the victim reeling, however temporarily.

Midway, 1,304 miles from Hawaii, and Wake, another 1,185 miles farther toward Asia, were pre-war outposts in the Hawaiian defense and part also of a system of stepping-stones that included Guam, surrounded by Japanese mandated islands, before the line reached the Philippines. Guam fell to the Japanese early in the war. So likewise did Wake, though on both islands the resistance was heroic. Midway remained American.

Midway, two atolls surrounded by shoals and reefs, became the focus, six months after the Pearl Harbor attack, of another attempt to breach Hawaii's defenses. The December attack, though beaten off, had cost the United States severely. The June assault had been happier, for the attackers not only never gained the Hawaiian goal, but were decisively beaten. Midway itself had been strongly defended, and during the battle was reinforced by planes from Hawaiian bases. The result was told in Japanese battleships damaged, aircraft carriers sunk, planes destroyed. A Japanese armada had been defeated and dispersed. The American battle-line still cut across the mid-Pacific.



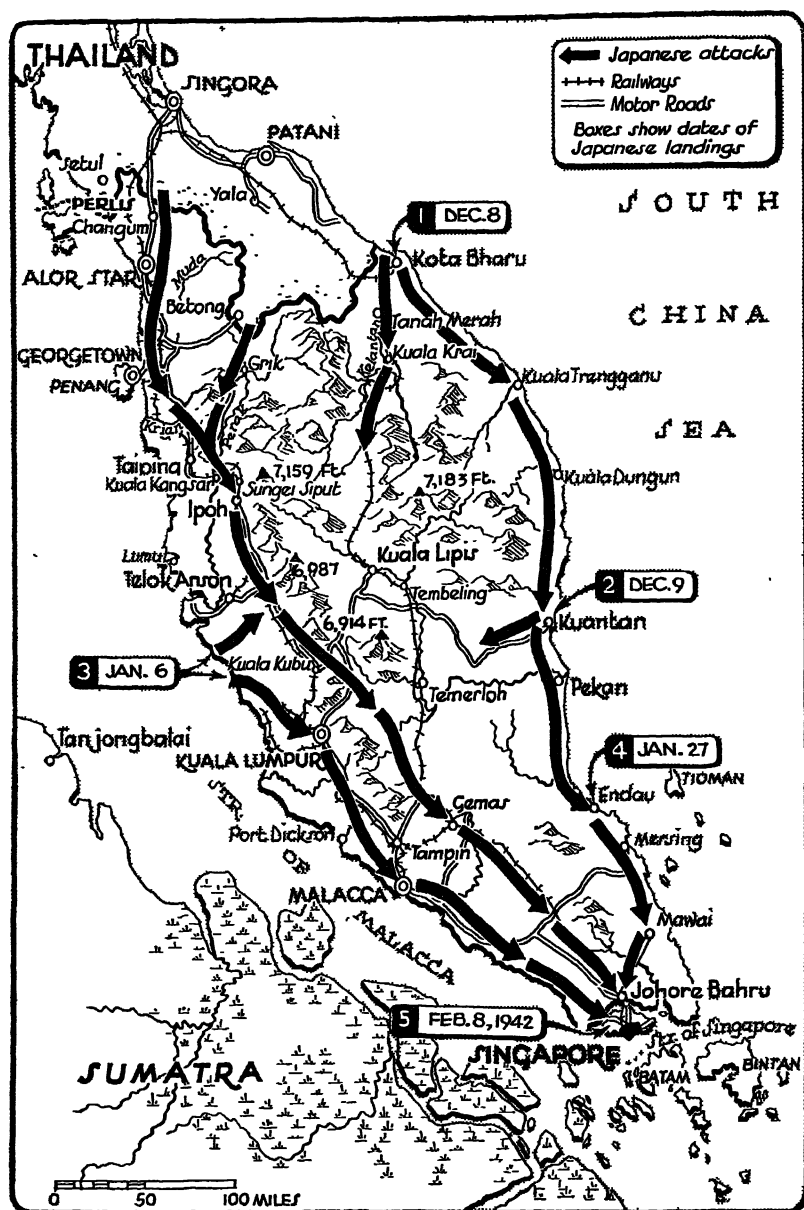
# WAR IN THE PHILIPPINES

ON MAY 6, 1942, a chapter in American colonial history was concluded. That day the Stars and Stripes were hauled down on Corregidor, the rocky island fortress guarding the entrance to Manila Bay in the Commonwealth of the Philippines. For more than 40 years the United States had been in the Philippines; Japan had now driven out the Americans and squelched the promise of Filipino independence.

There are more than 7,000 islands in the Philippines and more than 16,000,000 persons living on them. Sugar grows in the islands, rice also, cotton, hemp. Gold, copper, iron, and manganese are found in them. Rich actually, richer potentially, the Philippines are a prize, and Japan, striking south the 200 miles from Formosa, sought to take this prize when in December 1941 her forces first landed on the important island of Luzon.

The Philippine Commonwealth was defended by Filipino Scouts and American troops. The invaders soon outnumbered them, for striking from several sides of Luzon, after their planes had hammered Philippine airfields, they closed in. Manila fell on January 2, and therewith the bulk of the defenders withdrew to fight on hopelessly on the Bataan Peninsula across the bay from Manila. Isolated from effective aid from the United States or the other United Nations, the defenders resisted until early in April the bulk of them were forced to surrender. The fall of Corregidor followed a few weeks later. One by one the other islands also were taken by the Japanese.

The fighting in the Philippines taught a political if not a military lesson. Filipinos, promised their independence of the United States in 1946, already enjoying semi-independence, stood to the end with American soldiers and sailors. The population, despite fifth columnists among it, had been loyal to the ties with the United States. That fact was remembered as the other Western Powers fought to save their colonies in Asia, fought but lost, only to discover that the native populations were passive when not actively disloyal and hostile.



# MALAYAN CAMPAIGN

LIKE A GREAT ARM, the Malay Peninsula reaches out from Burma toward the East Indies. Northeast lie Thailand and Indo-China. North and west are Burma and India. Here in 1941 the British colonial system, superimposed on native States, lived on anachronistically. There were civil servants, planters and their families, superintendents of tin mines. Between these and the natives stretched a gulf, which the Japanese proceeded to make the most of, for on December 8, 1941, war came to the Malay Peninsula.

The Japanese, occupying Thailand quickly and without resistance, began flanking movements down the east and west coasts of British Malaya. They used roads and trails. They filtered through jungles and swamps. Always they seemed able to outflank the British forces, in large part Australian, massed to stem their advance. Many natives apparently aided the invaders. For the British side, the fighting at best was hardly more than a rear guard action.

There were high stakes in Malaya. The rubber plantations and tin diggings would go far toward meeting Japan's poverty in these essential materials. Militarily, the Japanese might hope to gain the great fortress of Singapore, a vast land and naval base commanding the Straits of Malacca and symbolizing British power and prestige in the Far East.

Japanese planes pounded Singapore and its defenders. Japanese planes struck at British naval strength, early in the campaign sinking the battleships *Repulse* and *Prince of Wales* that had been assigned to an important role in Far Eastern strategy. Hammered from the air, constantly pushed back on land, the British imperials made a last stand at Singapore. On February 15, 1942, the \$400,000,000 fortress that had been 20 years in building was surrendered.



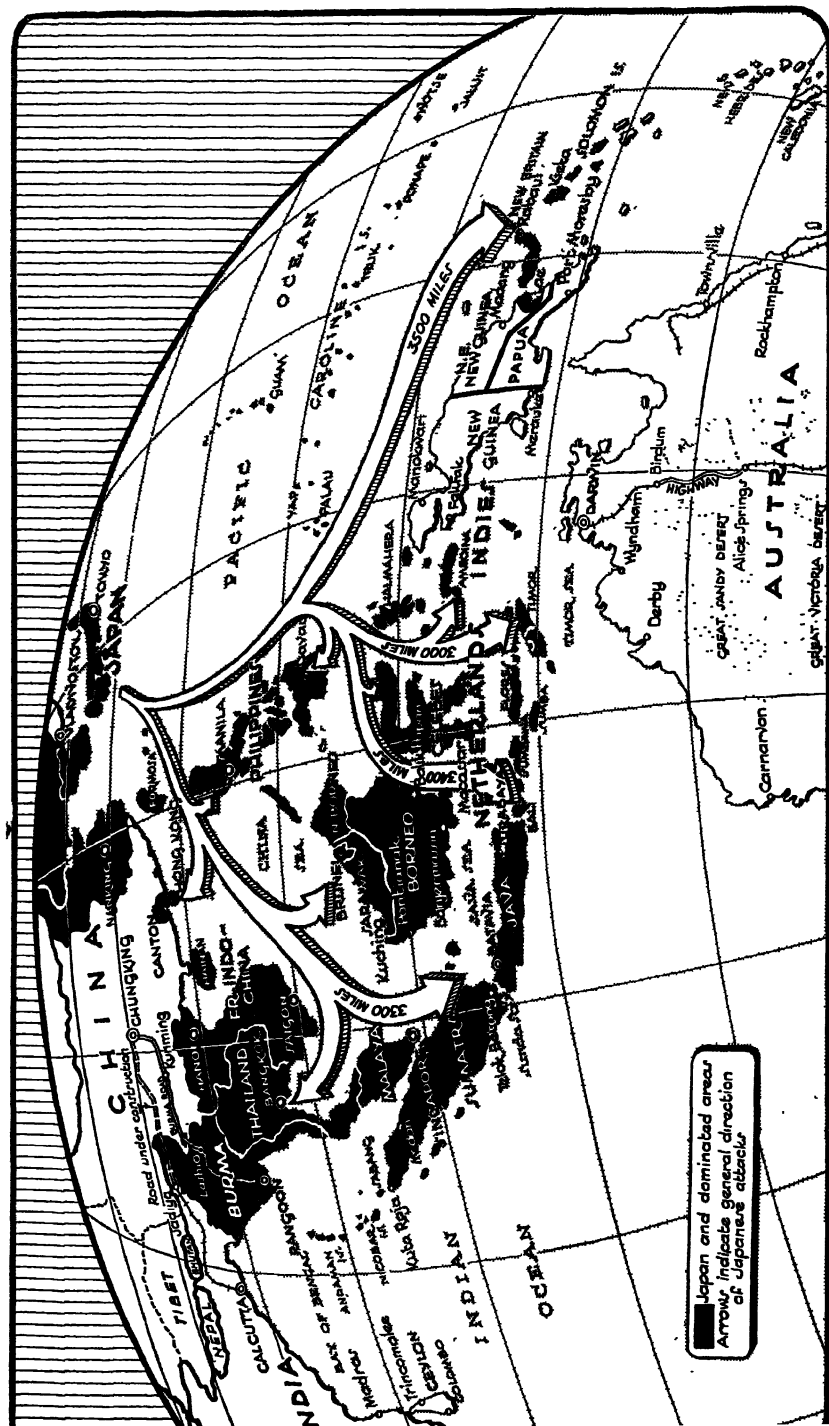
# 58 THE DUTCH EAST INDIES

FROM EAST TO WEST the Dutch East Indies stretch for nearly 4,000 miles, a great archipelago in which the Netherlands slowly built a colonial empire in the centuries after the Dutch East India Company was created in 1602. More than 60,000,000 persons inhabit the islands. Most of the population is native, but there are a good many Chinese and, comparatively, a handful of whites.

Japan had long been anxious to dominate the Indies, and not only because it seemed ironic that a weak European nation should control one of the earth's treasure houses. Japan wanted these treasures, needed them, required the oil, tin, rubber, and foodstuffs of the Indies to make her own empire strong. The Dutch were aware of their difficult posi-

tion. They protected it diplomatically as best they could, counting to considerable extent on the probable help of Great Britain and the United States the while they strengthened their own military establishment.

A small fleet was based in the Indies. American planes were bought in growing numbers. The army of the islands was increased and drilled. The outbreak of war found the Japanese nearly 1,000 miles from the Indies, but distance proved small advantage for the Dutch defense. Japan's steady push southward reached the islands before the war was a month old. What had been known historically as the Malay Barrier was about to be attacked and breached.



# 59 BREACHING THE MALAY BARRIER

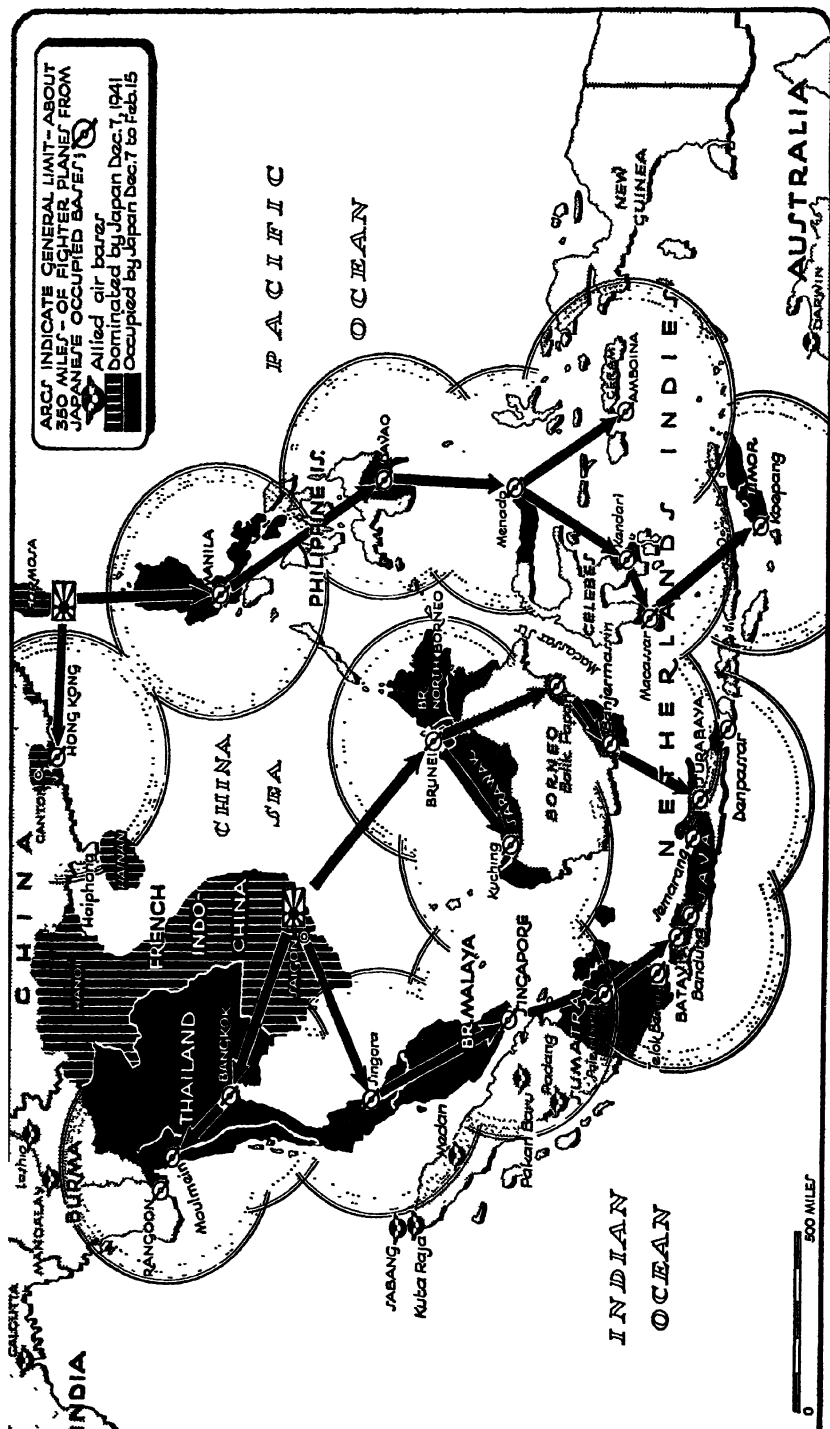
FROM BRITISH MALAYA eastward to the Solomon Islands stretch for 4,000 miles the islands large and small that have been called the Malay Barrier. In terms of military and naval strategy the word barrier had real application, for this long line not only defended Australia and New Zealand from immediate attack, but served to shut Japan's men-of-war partly from the Indian Ocean.

The defenses of the Malay Barrier had been regarded as strong until tested by actual war. On the west they were anchored on the fortress of Singapore. There were Dutch naval bases at Surabaya and Amboina in the East Indies. Airfields were spread across many of the islands. To the barrier's defense were mustered Allied naval vessels, Allied planes and airmen, British and Dutch troops. But the defense proved highly vulnerable.

The Japanese struck at Hong Kong and the Philippines to protect their flanks. They hit Malaya. Despite their preoccupation with these areas they occupied

Sarawak in Borneo before the war was a month old. In January a Japanese force landed on New Britain Island, 3,500 miles from Japan; another force was in Dutch Celebes. Singapore fell on February 15, and already the Japanese had invaded Sumatra and had captured the Dutch naval base at Amboina. Java fell at the beginning of March. In most instances the Japanese won only 'scorched earth,' for, particularly in the Indies, oil fields, refineries, factories, harbor works, and all else militarily valuable had been dynamited or set afire.

Throughout the Japanese attack on the Malay Barrier Allied forces had resisted as best they could. There had been bitter fighting on land. Outnumbered Allied airmen took the air to bomb the invasion armadas and to lend what protection they could to Allied warships fighting in the narrow seas and straits against superior Japanese sea and air power. Their efforts had been in vain. Victory belonged to Japan.



# 60 AERIAL PATTERN OF CONQUEST

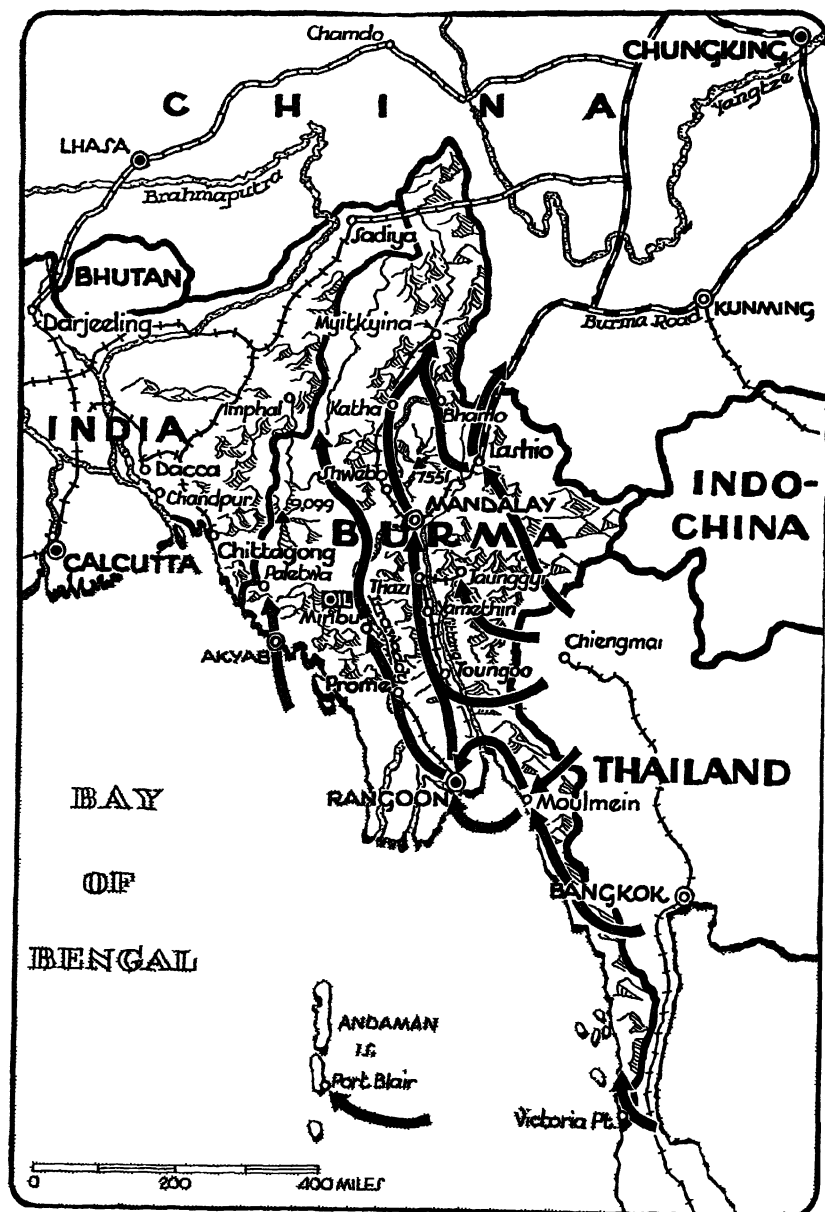
JAPAN'S rapid conquest of Allied territories in the Far East bore witness to the part air power can play in modern war. The Japanese first of all had numerical air supremacy over the relatively small air forces of their opponents. They made that supremacy doubly sure by the surprise attacks of December 7, 1941, which destroyed a good deal of Allied air strength, notably much of that of the United States in the Philippines.

The war begun, Japan's aerial strategy quickly became clear. Planes, taking off sometimes from carriers at sea, tried to knock out Allied air bases preliminary to land attacks. Invading troops aimed at airfields. Once seized, these were used by the Japanese for their own planes which took off to bomb other Allied air bases and again to support land attacks. Over and over the operation was repeated. Always the Japanese tried to keep fighter plane protection

for their bombers, and this meant a series of bases within fighter range of one another.

Japanese air power made itself felt at sea as well as on land. Thus it was that off Malaya Japanese planes torpedoed the British battleships *Repulse* and *Prince of Wales* when the war was only two days old. In subsequent naval actions Japanese planes were often crucial, the more because the United Nations had insufficient air strength to defend their men-of-war and merchant shipping.

The accompanying chart map illustrates better than words the aerial pattern of Japan's advance southward, step by step, until the fighting was thousands of miles from the homeland. The air war, of course, was only part of the strategy. Transports had to land troops. Naval forces had to guard ship lanes. Yet in the whole vast campaign the airplane held a definite and vital part.



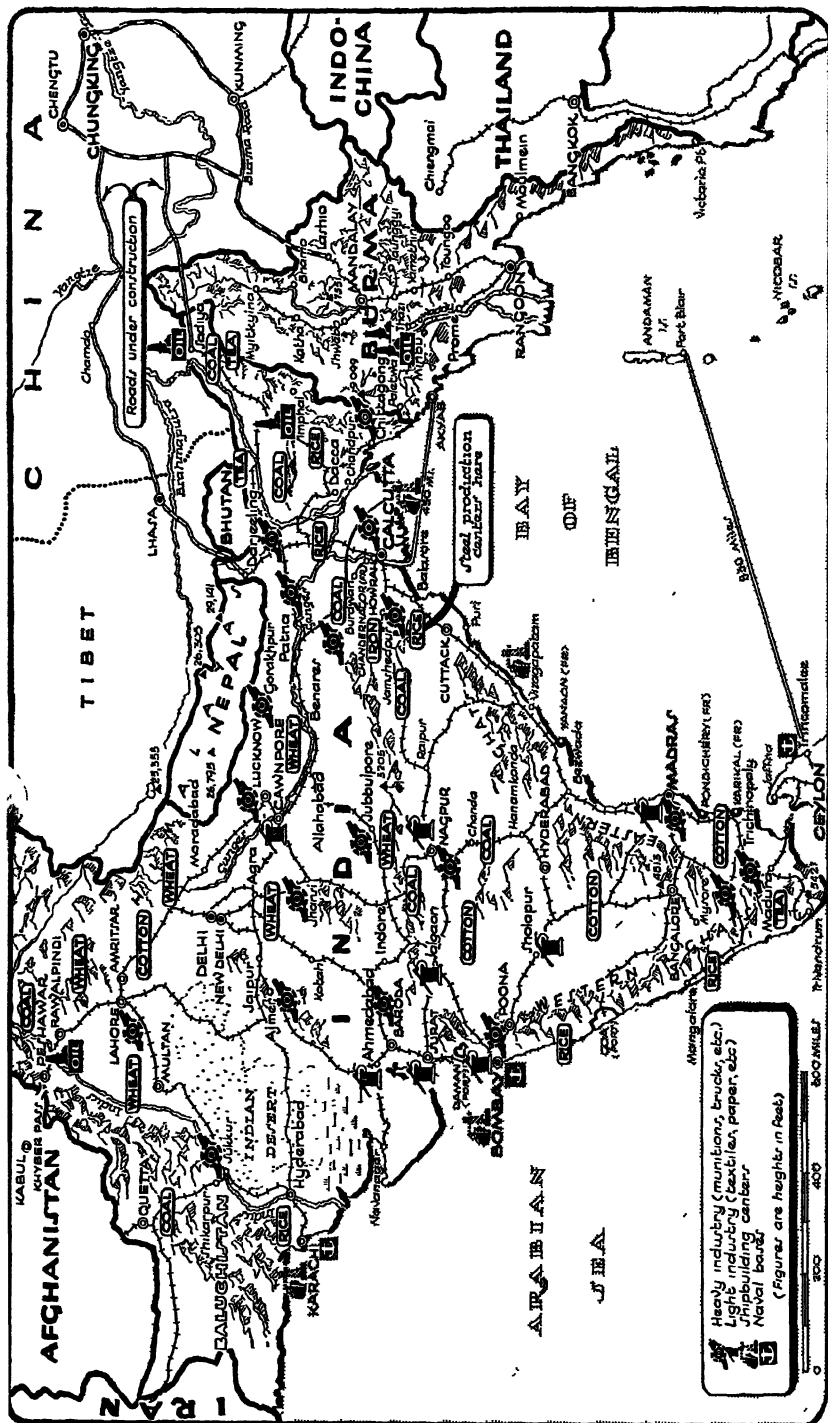
# BURMA CONQUERED

DURING the years following Japan's attack on China in 1937, the world came to know well the Burma Road that, following China's loss of seaports, served as the principal Chinese link with the nations of the West. The road, twisting and turning across the mountains from Kunming in China to Lashio, Burma, connects with a railway that pushes down to Rangoon on the Bay of Bengal. Over this route passed arms and supplies for China's armies. Japan long sought to cut this artery. War with Britain made it possible.

Following the conquest of Malaya, the Japanese slipped through the jungles toward the Burmese country. Early in March, despite Allied resistance on land and in the air, they occupied Rangoon, a burning ruin. The Burma Road had lost its sea terminus. But the Japanese did not halt. They turned northward, driving up the Sittang Valley toward Mandalay. They followed the Irrawaddy Valley north. Always they enjoyed air supremacy. Always their troops infiltrated, advanced.

Central Burma with its oil fields that produce 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 barrels annually became a goal. The Allies applied the 'scorched earth' policy to the fields, leaving them wrecked and burning as the Japanese advance proved impossible to stem. Neither the arrival of Chinese troops nor American air reinforcements proved sufficient to prevent the Japanese from overrunning the Crown Colony of Burma and reaching the frontiers of India and China.

The British had been in this colony—it covers 233,000 square miles, has a population of about 15,000,000—since the beginning of the seventeenth century. Their withdrawal, and the Burmese in many instances aided the invaders, struck hard at British prestige in the Orient. More than that. The Japanese had won positions from which to strike at China from the south, or at India from the east. China, in addition, was cut off from easy supply by her allies in the struggle for survival.



# 62 VITAL INDIA

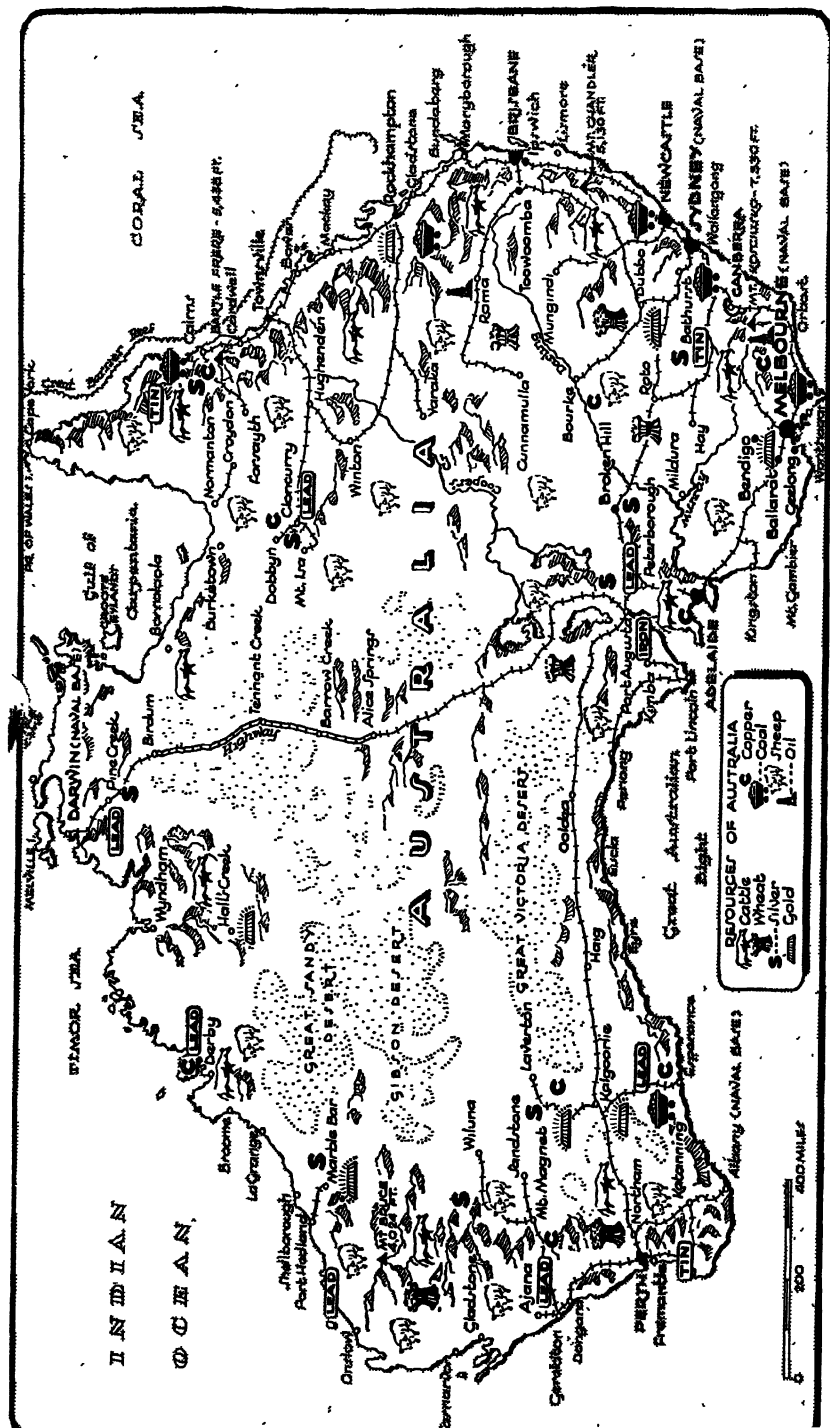
THE EMPIRE OF INDIA is usually called a subcontinent, and rightly so. Its 400,000,000 people inhabit a land that spreads over 1,809,000 square miles, considerably more than half the area of the continental United States. There are great steel mills and textile plants in the empire. There are munitions factories and truck assembly plants. In many ways India is not only a vast source of manpower for the United Nations but also their arsenal in Asia.

To hold India is essential to the Allied cause. The country is a source of supply. It offers a springboard for attack upon the Japanese. Lost by the United Nations, it would open a way for Japanese advance westward toward possible union of forces with the armies of Germany. In Japanese hands, it would provide a base for cutting Allied supply lines to the Middle East and East Africa, and for further isolating China.

British defense of India has traditionally been

based on the possibility of invasion from the west, through the Khyber Pass. Japan's conquest of Burma shifted the emphasis immediately to the east. The danger was the more real because Calcutta, second largest city in the British Empire, is close to the Burma frontier, and near Calcutta are located India's largest steel plants. As the threats mounted, Britain massed forces in India, looked to her defenses. American contingents, notably air forces, arrived to assist.

Political unrest in India added further uncertainty. Demands by the All-India Congress that India be given immediate freedom from British rule, although Allied troops would be allowed to defend the country, seemed to be playing into Japanese hands. In August 1942, the Congress party launched a campaign of civil disobedience to enforce its demands. Disorder spread. The Germans glibed that Britain in India had a 'third front.' The Japanese watched and waited across the frontier.



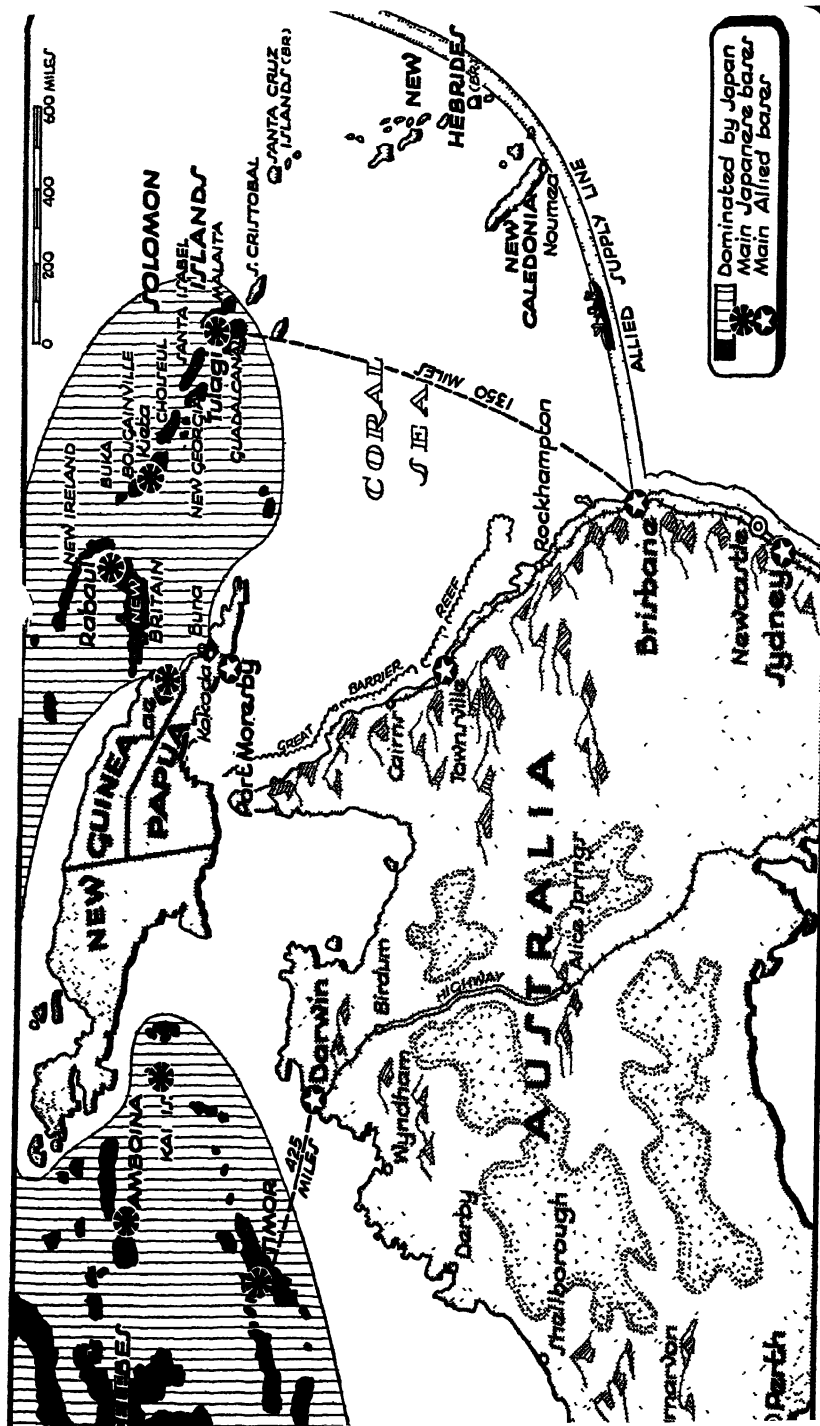
# 63 THE AUSTRALIAN OUTPOST

BY WAY OF HONOLULU it is more than 8,000 miles from San Francisco to Melbourne, Australia. The fact has been paramount in the building of the Australian continent into a bastion of United Nations defense. So great a distance means, for example, that a convoy may require almost a month to reach Australia from the United States. Great effort and considerable time are thus demanded for concentrating strong forces in this British Dominion that is almost as large as the continental United States and yet is populated by only about 7,000,000 persons.

Australia in itself is not a land of abundant resources. It lacks many of the essential metals. It lacks large-scale industries for the making of war materials, although industry has expanded rapidly under the pressure of war. It lacks good communications. There are no naval bases comparable to those of Britain and the United States. These factors only add to the difficulties of utilizing Australia as a base for offense against Japan.

Yet in the face of all barriers, American forces and supplies were sent overseas to Australia after the beginning of Japan's offensive war. With American troops came planes in large numbers. American naval vessels supplemented the expeditionary force. The French island of New Caledonia, more than 1,000 miles from Sydney, was transformed into an American base. Americans landed also on New Zealand, nearly 1,500 miles from Sydney.

In using Australia as a base, Port Darwin, some 600 miles from the former Dutch base of Amboina, took on new importance. Americans were there. They were also at Port Moresby in New Guinea, across the Torres Strait from the continent. Air power and sea power were highly important. Both had a major role in assuring that Australia would not fall into Japanese hands, for so long as the United Nations held Australia, they had a base for future offensives to drive the Japanese from their conquests in the East Indies and Malaya.



# 64 THE SOLOMONS

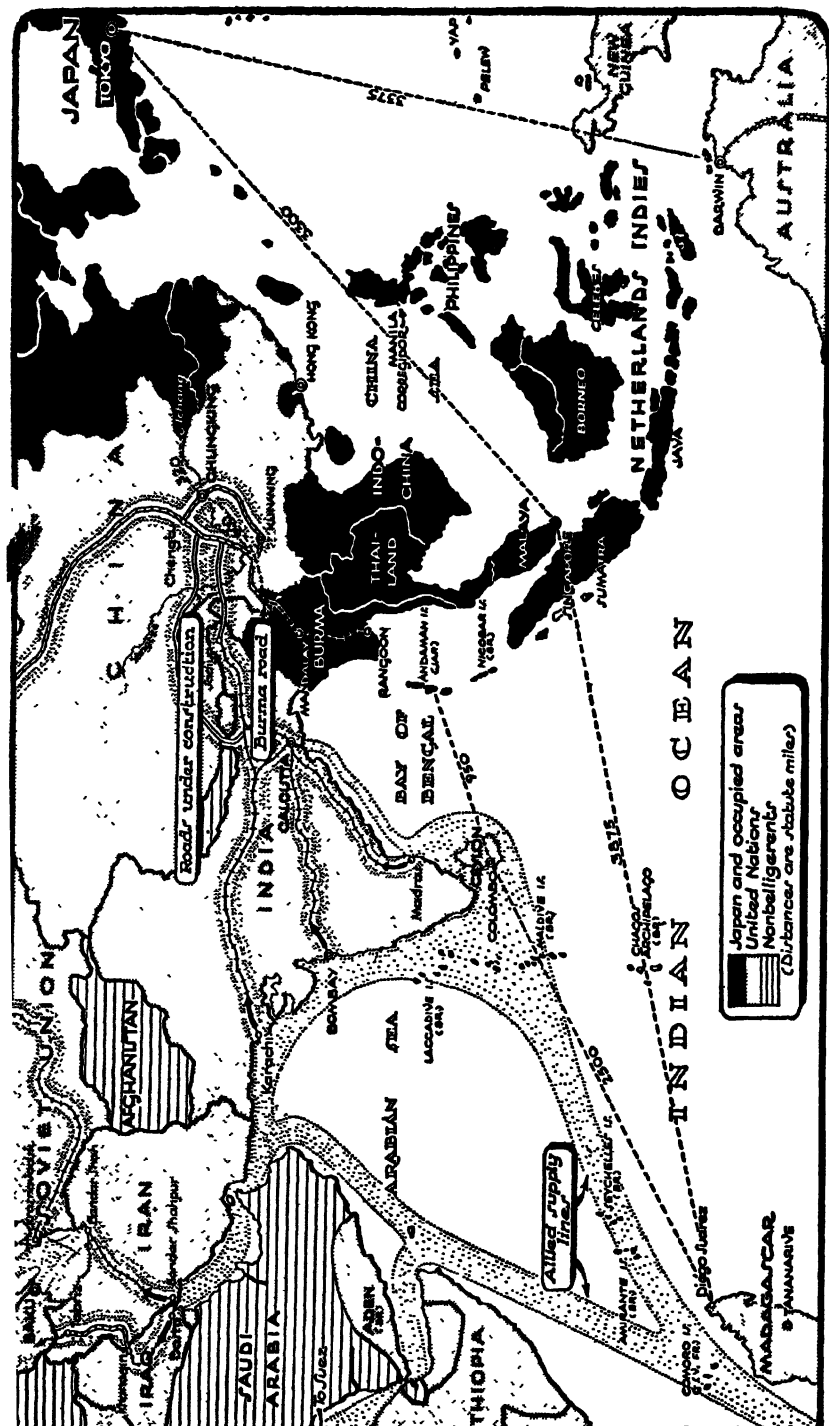
APPROXIMATELY 1,000 miles off Australia's northeast coast lies the group of islands and reefs known as the Solomons. For 900 miles they extend southward from the East Indian group toward New Hebrides and New Caledonia, part of a vast island arc that in the present war looms large in the defense of Australia and Allied positions in the South Pacific.

Germany and Britain ruled the Solomons until World War I. After Versailles the entire group was administered by Australia. Jungle-clad islands, mountainous, they were little known to the world until war came to them. Then they assumed importance, for on them could be built air bases. Tulagi harbor in the southern part of the Solomons is regarded as one of the world's best, and is capable of sheltering a vast fleet. Yet the Solomon Islands were scarcely defended when the Japanese pushed into them early in 1942.

Japanese bases in the Solomons threatened both air and sea routes to Australia, the routes which

United Nations forces had been stationed on New Hebrides and New Caledonia to protect. These bases also could become important in any Japanese attempt at an Australian invasion, the more because Japanese forces were already entrenched on Timor and other islands to the northwest of Australia. Moreover, if the United Nations could drive the Japanese from the Solomons a first move might be taken toward driving them, step by step, from the island constellations to the north.

On August 7, 1942, American forces attacked the Solomons in an operation notable because it marked the first offensive action by the United Nations in the South Pacific. Marines, aided by the fleet and air arms, fought their way ashore and gradually dug themselves in, resisted in subsequent weeks fierce counter-attack. The southernmost islands of the Solomons, including Tulagi with its harbor, passed to American control. Japan's thrust to the south had for the moment been blunted.



# 65 WAR IN THE INDIAN OCEAN

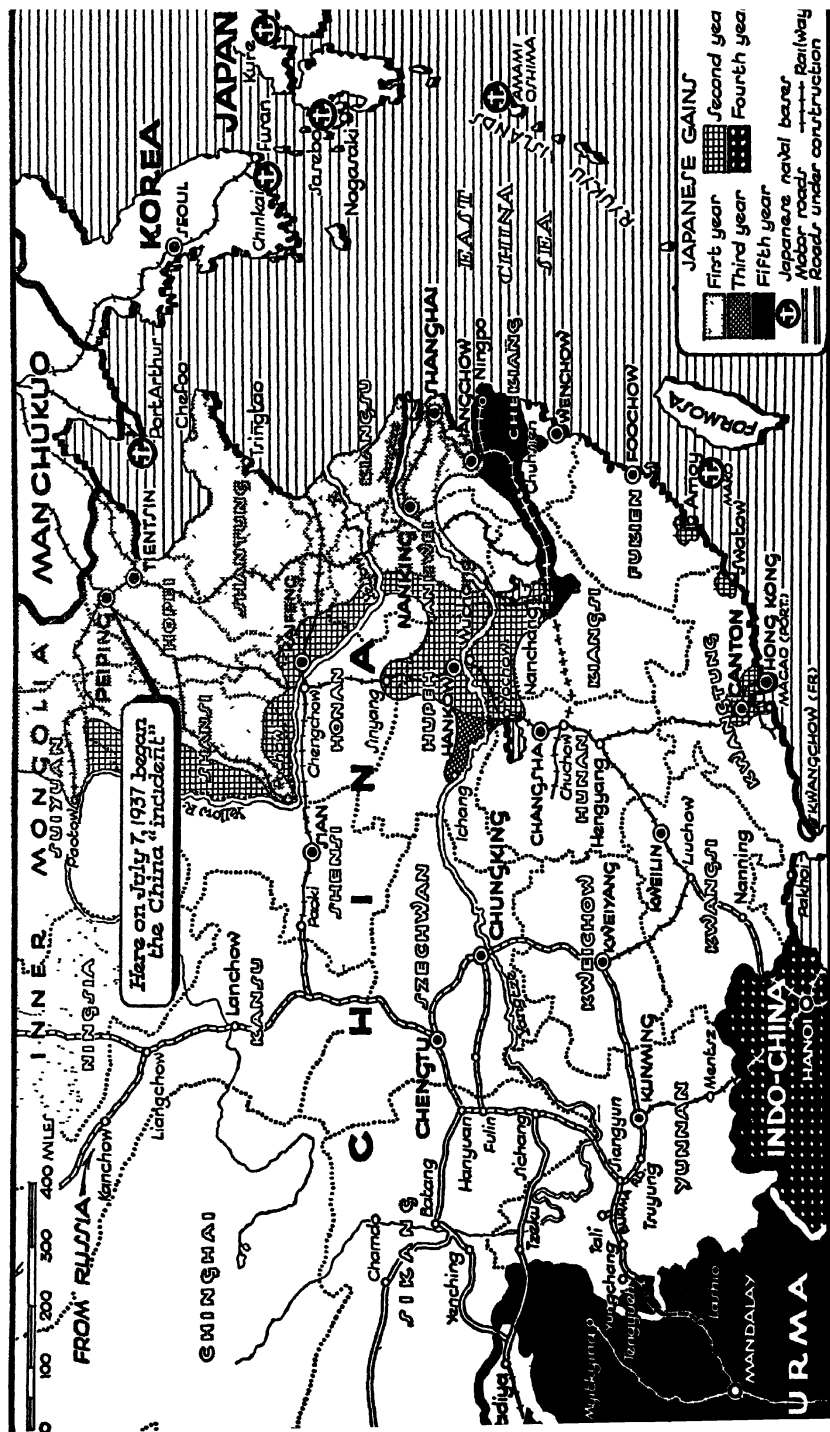
BETWEEN AFRICA on the west, Malaya and Australia on the east, lies the monsoon-whipped expanse of the Indian Ocean that reaches from India south to the Antarctic. Third largest of the world's oceans, it knew little directly of the Second World War until Japan attacked the United States and Britain. Until then only the activities of occasional Nazi raiders had brought the Indian Ocean into the war's orbit.

Across the Indian Ocean plow the ships that bring from the United States and Britain the men and munitions for defending India, Russia, the Middle East. Around the Cape of Good Hope the ships ply. They turn northward, some bound for Bombay or Madras, others for Basra on the Persian Gulf, 14,190 miles from New York. Still others sail into the Red Sea to halt at Eritrea or the Egyptian ports.

To defend these lanes against Axis attack is fundamental in the strategy of the United Nations. The danger of attack became more real after the fall of

Singapore and the East Indies opened to Japanese warships the eastern gateways to the Indian Ocean. The Japanese men-of-war confined their activity to the Bay of Bengal, one of the ocean's arms. They took the Andaman Islands. There were brief threats to Ceylon.

With the memory strong of Japanese penetration into French Indo-China, ostensibly with the approval of the Vichy French, the United Nations watched closely French Madagascar, fifth largest island in the world. Madagascar, 250 miles off Africa's southeast coast, commands sea routes in the Indian Ocean, and in Japanese hands would be dangerous indeed. Rumors of Japanese influence in Madagascar circulated. They ended when Britain, in the first week of May 1942, put troops ashore to seize Diego Suarez, the naval base, at Madagascar's northern tip, and later occupied the whole island. For the moment at least the Indian Ocean's sea lanes were secure.



# 66 CHINA AFTER FIVE YEARS OF WAR

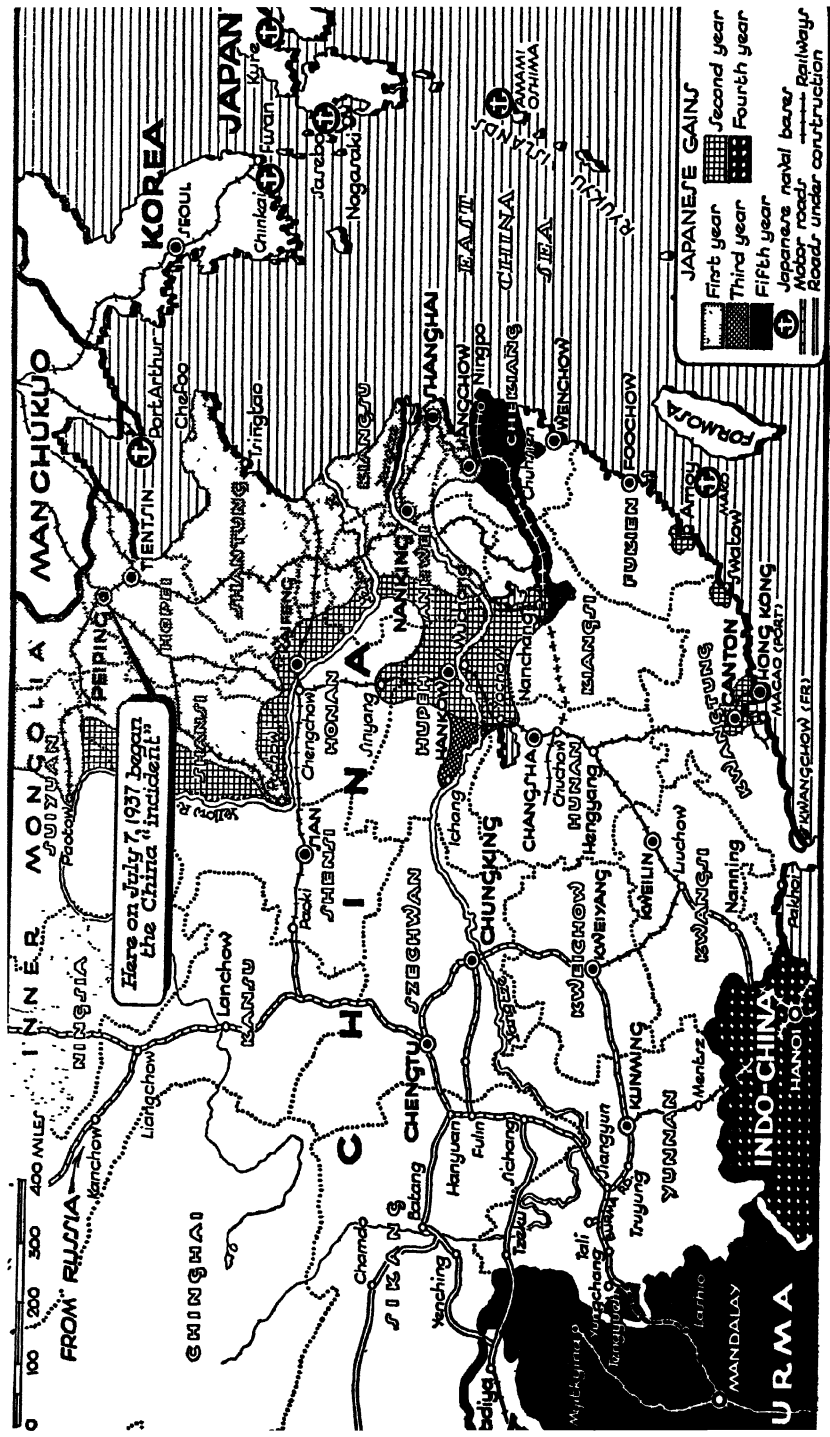
OUTSIDE PEIPING on the night of July 7, 1937, Chinese and Japanese troops skirmished at the Marco Polo Bridge. That incident loosed the undeclared Sino-Japanese war that on December 7, 1941, became part of the war of the world. Between those two dates, China, despite the sympathy of the democratic world and some aid in materiel, stood almost alone against the power of Japan.

The Chinese, lacking air strength, lacking adequate tank and motorized equipment, deficient in almost all the necessities of modern war, fought against overwhelming odds. Shanghai fell in November 1937, opening the way for Japanese capture of Nanking, the capital, and Hankow, a Chinese Pittsburgh. In October 1938, the great southern port of Canton was taken, and with its fall China lost ready access to the sea and the commerce of the world.

Japan, pushing her dominion from Manchuria to south of the Yangtze, controlled most of China's railways, many of China's great cities. The hold was tenuous, for Chinese guerrillas harassed the Japanese,

cut their communications, prevented the Japanese from exploiting the farm country and the small communities. Meantime, the Chinese had moved much of their industry to the interior, and from Chungking, far up the Yangtze, directed a brave war effort toward beating back the Japanese. From the outside world supplies reached the Chinese principally over the Burma Road, though some war goods were trucked in from Russia.

The end of the fifth year of the war found the Burma Road closed by Japan's Burmese conquest. There were threats of Japanese invasion from Burma. More than 5,000,000 Chinese, it was estimated in July 1942, had died in the war. The sixth year held some hope, for American air men had arrived. For the first time China could resist Japan's air force. If new supply routes could be opened, China might be provided with the materials of war to hold off Japan until the United Nations as a whole had broken the power of Nippon.



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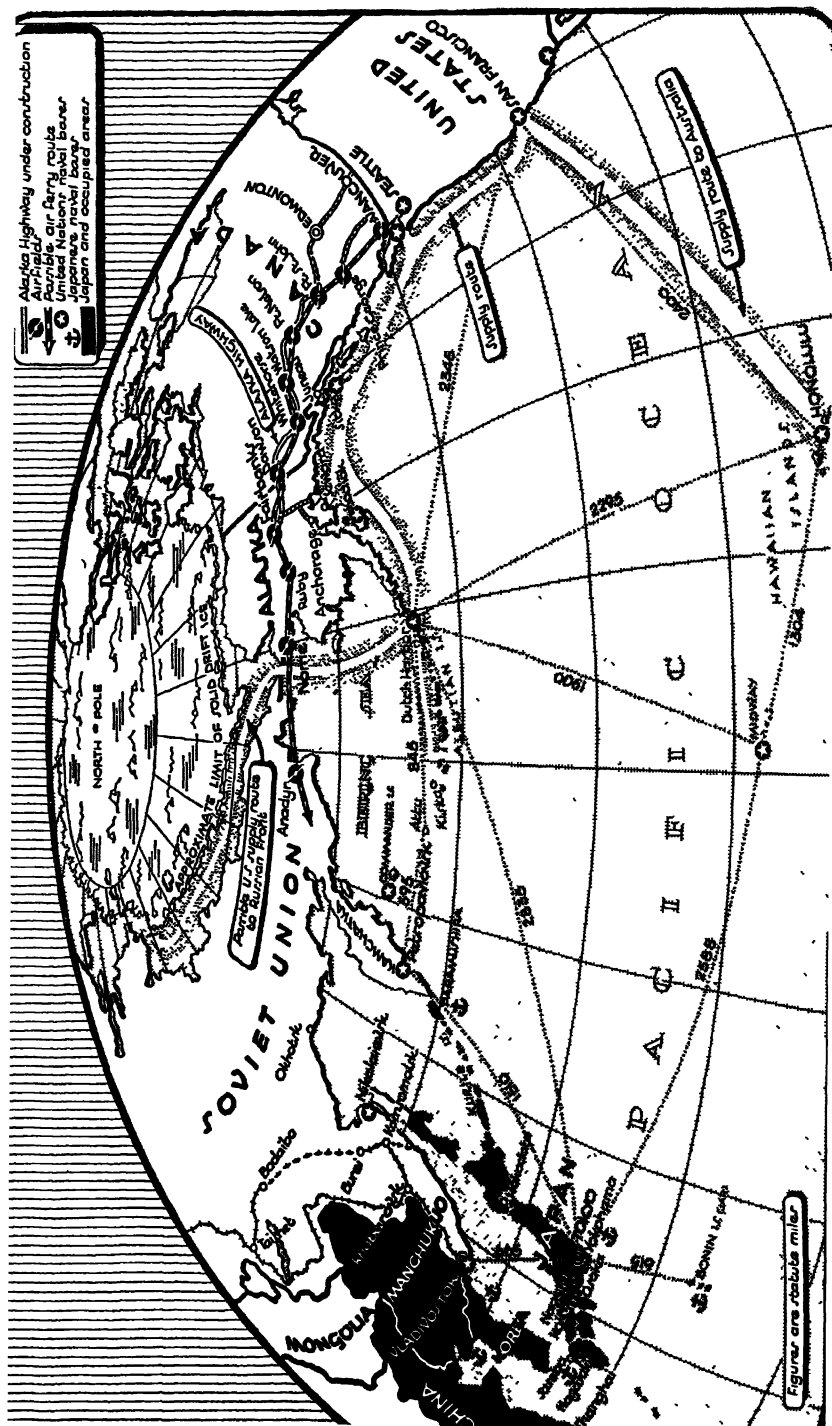
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# 67 THE STRATEGIC NORTH PACIFIC

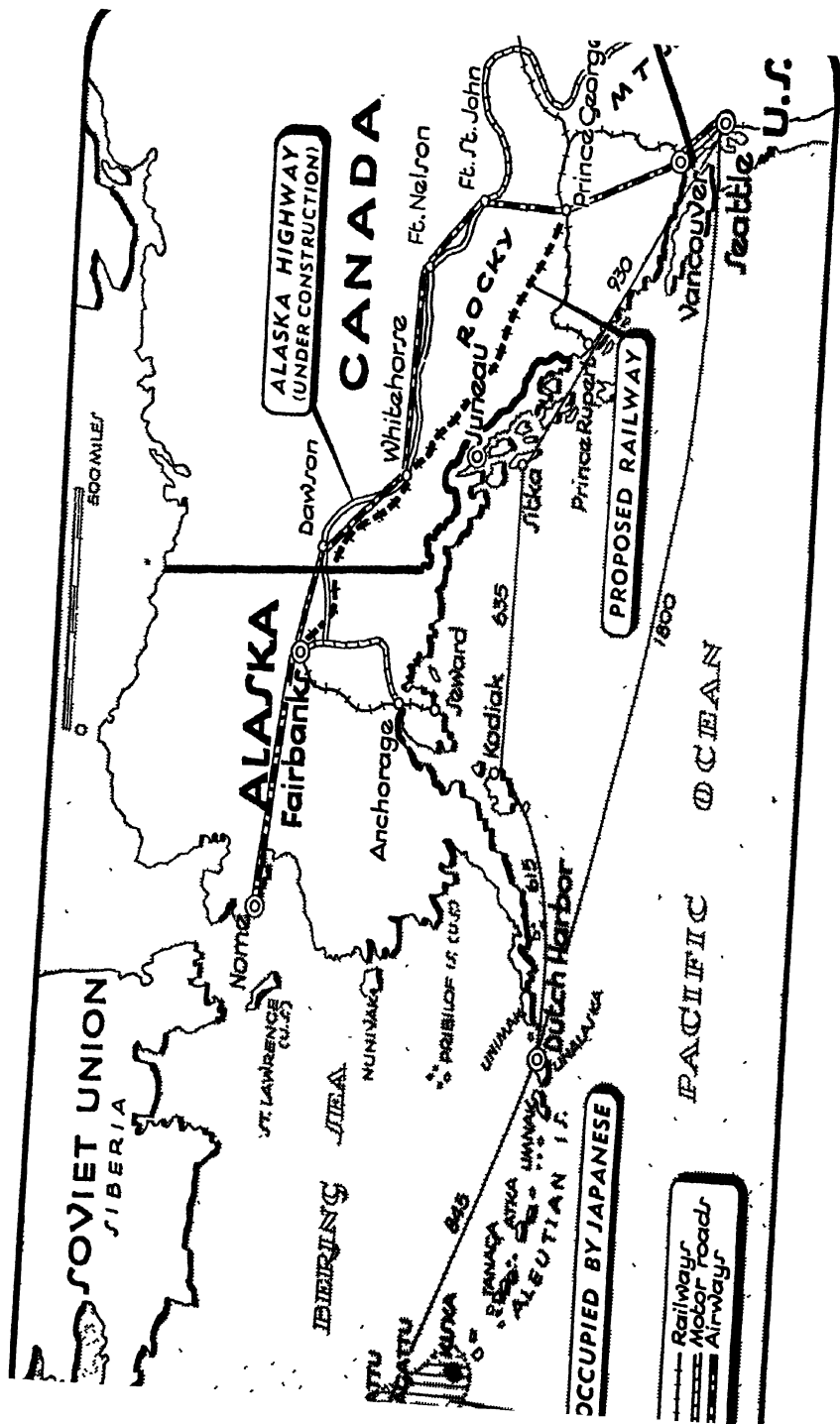
A PYRAMID based on a straight line stretching the 5,217 miles from Tokyo to San Francisco, such on the mercator projection is the North Pacific. In the war of the world this region holds high strategic stakes. These are the reasons. The pyramid's peak represents North America's closest approach to Asia, for at this point, the Bering Strait, the two continents are only 54 miles apart. Like a dagger pointing toward Asia, the Aleutian Islands shut in the Bering Sea on the south and end but 800 miles from the Japanese base at Paramushira in the Kurile Islands. The Aleutians thus almost link the two continents, just as the Kuriles provide links between Russian Kamchatka and the islands of Japan.

The region of these North Pacific isles is difficult. Summer seasons are short and foggy. Winters are long and cold; ice closes the Bering Strait for more than half the year, and storms beat down upon the Aleutians with truly Arctic vigor.

Across the North Pacific lie the routes many strate-

gists regard as most feasible for American invasion of Japan or Japanese invasion of America. Across this area also lie the routes for easy communication between the United States and Russian Siberia. Long before the world took up arms, Soviet flyers were flying from Moscow to the United States by way of Siberia and Alaska. The Russians were seeking also to open the historic Northwest Passage so that shipping in summer months might reach their country by way of the Bering Strait and the Arctic. American entrance into the war made these routes vitally important.

To defend their interests in the North Pacific, the United States, Russia and Japan have built naval bases and airfields. American bases have long been in the making at Sitka, Kodiak, and Dutch Harbor in the Alaskan territory. Russia has bases on Kamchatka at Petropavlovsk and on the Commander Islands. Japan has built a base at Paramushira and presumably has fortified other islands in the Kuriles.



# 68 ALASKA AN AMERICAN BASTION

ISOLATION has afflicted Alaska from the time the United States in 1867 purchased from Russia this vast region of 586,400 square miles. No roads or railways have linked the underpopulated territory to the United States proper. Ships, however, sail into Alaska's fjords and foggy ports, although ice closes ports on the Bering Sea for much of the year, and air travel has helped further to cut Alaskan isolation.

War has put a wholly new face on things. 'He who holds Alaska holds the world,' General William Mitchell once said. It was a reference to future air power and to Alaska as a future base from which air armadas might be launched across the Pole against Europe or south against the Americas. The Mitchell dictum had at least partial acceptance among American military circles, for airfields, strategic in defending the continent against invasion from Asia and for attack on Asia, were built and are building. Efforts to expand communications have been hurried.

In March 1942, the United States and Canada agreed on the building of a highway to link Alaska by a route east of the Rockies with the Canadian highway system. Surveys were begun later for a railway roughly paralleling the coast, a railroad to run 1,300 miles from Prince George, British Columbia, to Whitehorse in the Yukon. Over these links would pass military supplies for the bases and garrisons in Alaska.

Alaska's strategic importance was driven home to Americans when on June 3, 1942, the Japanese bombed the naval base at Dutch Harbor and landed forces on the distant Aleutian islands of Kiska, Attu, and Agattu. This action dramatized the possibility of Japanese bombings of Canada and the western United States—if Japanese footholds should become permanent occupation and be extended. Contrarily, the value of these islands, despite their fogs and howling gales, as bases for air attack on Japan was driven home.



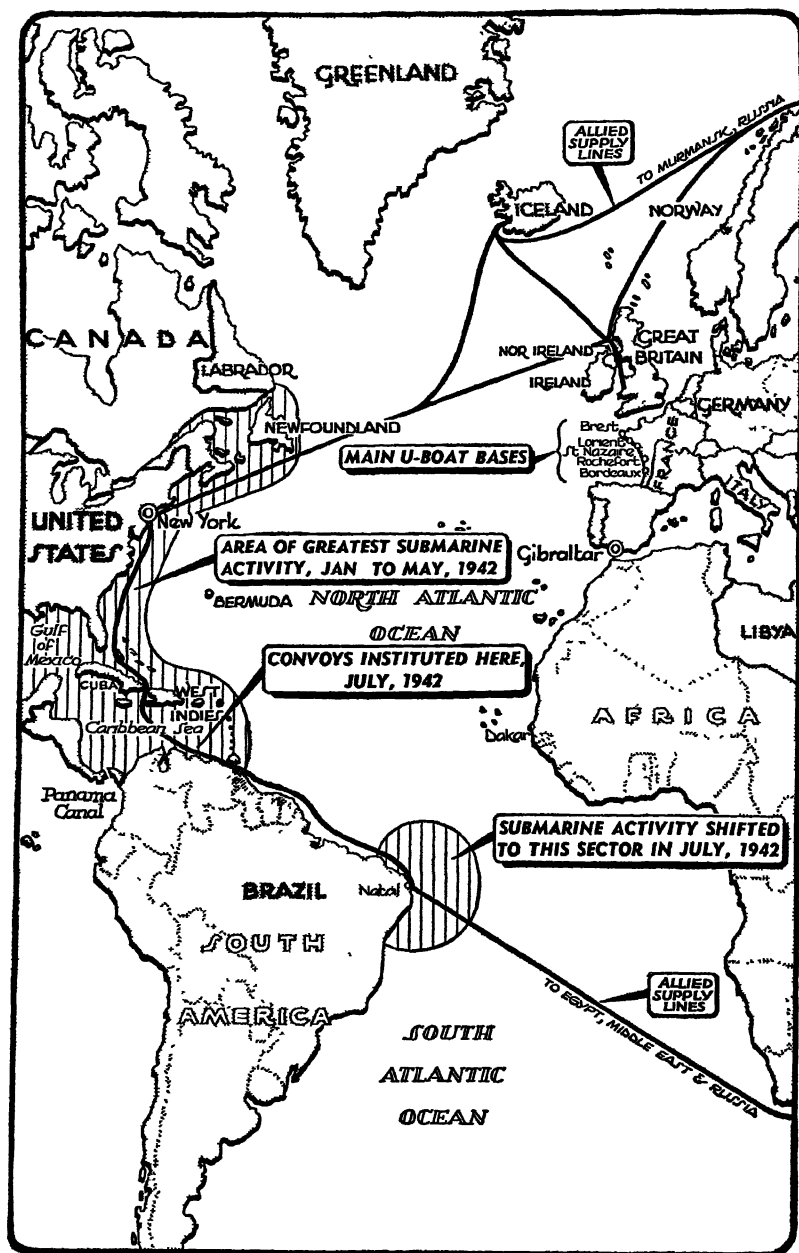
# SOVIET SIBERIA

THE LAND MASS of Siberia sprawls across 5,000,000 square miles of mountain and plain. It extends from the Urals eastward to the Bering Strait—approximately 3,800 miles—and southward from the Arctic to the borders of China and India. Sparsely populated, its growth and development have been pushed hard and rapidly by the Soviet regime.

Coal, iron, oil, copper, timber, farm products, all are available in the Siberian storehouse, awaiting only exploitation. Under Soviet direction industrial regions have been created on the eastern side of the Urals, in the Kuznetzk Basin of southwestern Siberia, in the region of Central Asia stretching from the Sea of Aral to India, and in the Far Eastern area from Lake Baikal east to Kamchatka. In all these regions population has swelled as new towns and cities have been created.

Economic development of Siberia was premised in part on the possibility that in time of war European Russia would need badly the reserves such development would create. Great distances, moreover, made it sound business to build partly self-sufficient areas, since thus the moving of raw materials and finished goods would not overtax the transport system. This second factor entered directly into calculations for Far Eastern Siberia's defense, for the Russo-Japanese War of 1904 showed the difficulty of supplying eastern Siberia from European Russia.

Despite a non-aggression pact with Japan, Russia has always had to reckon with the possibility of Japanese attack. There has been the memory of past Japanese aggression at Russian expense. In addition, Japan after the First World War sought to dominate eastern Siberia. Moreover, Japan would presumably like to lift the threat embodied in Vladivostok, Russia's chief naval and air base in East Asia, that is only 700 miles from Tokyo. Japan's partnership with the Axis powers made even more probable Japanese attack upon Siberia.



# THE ATLANTIC 1942

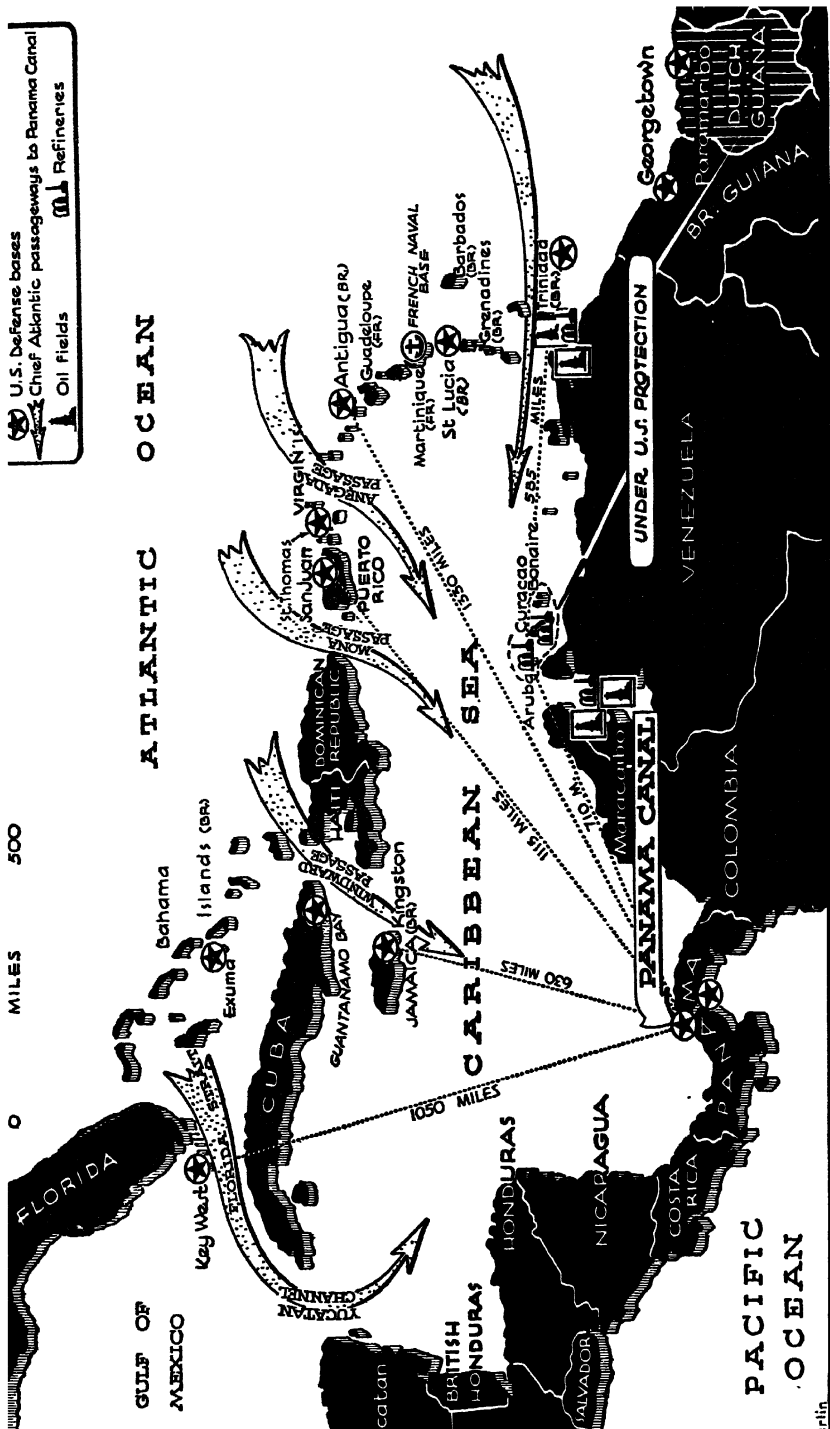
ON JANUARY 14, 1942, a German submarine torpedoed a tanker a few miles off New York Harbor, the first time since World War I that a U-boat had brought war to American coastal waters. A new phase in the Battle of the Atlantic was opening.

Convoys and patrols had slowly been perfected to a point that made shipping relatively safe in a crossing of the North Atlantic. Protecting naval vessels and planes took a toll in U-boats heavy enough for the Axis to decide the cost was not worth while. Only the route to Murmansk, where Arctic ice forced ships to pass close to the Norwegian coast, remained perilous for Allied shipping, a peril that grew steadily greater as spring's return lengthened the days and brought the 'white nights' of the sub-Arctic summer.

Along the American coast, 2,000 miles and more, U-boats for a time inflicted great damage. Slowly the situation improved. Convoys were instituted early in May, and thereafter sinkings dropped. Patrol duty was undertaken by hundreds of small boats. Planes watched from the air and blimps cruised back and forth across the heaving waters. Thereupon the U-boats centered their activities in the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean, but here again protective measures were adopted, and once again the U-boats shifted their hunting.

The South Atlantic loomed as a danger zone, particularly the 1,800-mile expanse between West Africa and the bulge of Brazil. Through these waters pass the routes of ships sailing around the Cape of Good Hope and linking the United States and Britain with South Africa and the Middle East. Sinkings in this area, mounting rapidly, achieved a dramatic climax when Brazil on August 22, following ship losses by torpedoings, declared war on Germany and Italy.

Brazil's entrance into the war immediately gave the United Nations strategic bases from which to fight the U-boat menace. Commercial air fields linked to air routes in Africa could be transformed into military air bases. Ports were available for naval patrols.



# 71 THE CARIBBEAN AREA

STRATEGY has long dictated that the Caribbean should be an American lake, and not only because of proximity of this tropical sea to the United States. The fact of proximity, of course, has had its importance. But most important of all has been the need to use the Caribbean and its islands as outlying defenses of the Panama Canal.

Geography explains all. From San Francisco to New York by way of Cape Horn a ship steams 13,328 nautical miles. The distance by way of the canal is 5,262 miles. The meaning in terms of shifting units of the fleet, of sending men and supplies by sea, is obvious, whether the shifts are from east to somewhere in the Pacific or vice versa. Thus the Panama Canal itself has always been strongly defended. The development of modern military science has caused these fortifications to be constantly strengthened.

Before World War II, Panama's bastions were few. A naval base had long existed at Guantanamo Bay in Cuba, and there were naval facilities in the Puerto

Rico area. But the course of Europe's war changed the picture, and after the destroyer-base deal with Britain in September 1940 the United States was able to start building a curtain of bases across the eastern end of the Caribbean, a curtain extending from the Bahamas to British Guiana. Later American troops landed on the Dutch island of Aruba, 700 miles from Panama, and in Dutch Guiana to insure they would not fall under Axis influence.

Distances in the Caribbean are not great—for example, it is only about 1,000 airline miles from Panama to Key West, Florida—with the result that bombers can easily patrol the region, supplementing naval patrols. Vigilance by air and sea did not suffice, however, to bar German U-boats from the Caribbean region after the United States entered the war. Submarines could not menace seriously American power. Only a major air attack could really endanger the position of the United States, and against such an attack defenses had been prepared.



# AND THE WAR

POTENTIALLY South America is one of the world's treasure houses. In area nearly twice the size of Europe, its total population is hardly more than that of pre-war Germany. Great distances, high mountains, deep jungles, poor communications, all have slowed development of South American resources.

The continent produces, largely for export, quantities of wheat, corn, meat, oil, copper, tin, cotton. Chile supplies 90 per cent of the world's iodine and 100 per cent of its nitrate of soda. Rubber is native to the Amazon country. Quinine, obtained from the cinchona tree, is native to Peru, although Java has had almost a monopoly of production. The course of the war has made South American products highly important to the United Nations, particularly where other sources of supply have been closed.

South America felt the impact of the war from the first. Its normal markets were upset when not actually lost. Economic life sagged. Rival political factions strove to align countries with the anti-Axis or Axis camp. The United States, keenly conscious of South America's strategic position in regards to Panama, the South Atlantic, and Africa, sought South American friendship and furthered that friendship by aiding in many instances the building of defense systems in South American nations.

Colombia and Venezuela broke off relations with the Axis as soon as the United States went to war. In accordance with the principle of Pan-American solidarity, all other South American nations except Argentina and Chile, broke off relations with the Axis at the end of January 1942, following a conference of the Americas at Rio de Janiero. Brazil was the first of the South American powers to enter an actual state of war.



# 73 AMERICAN CONTINGENTS ABROAD

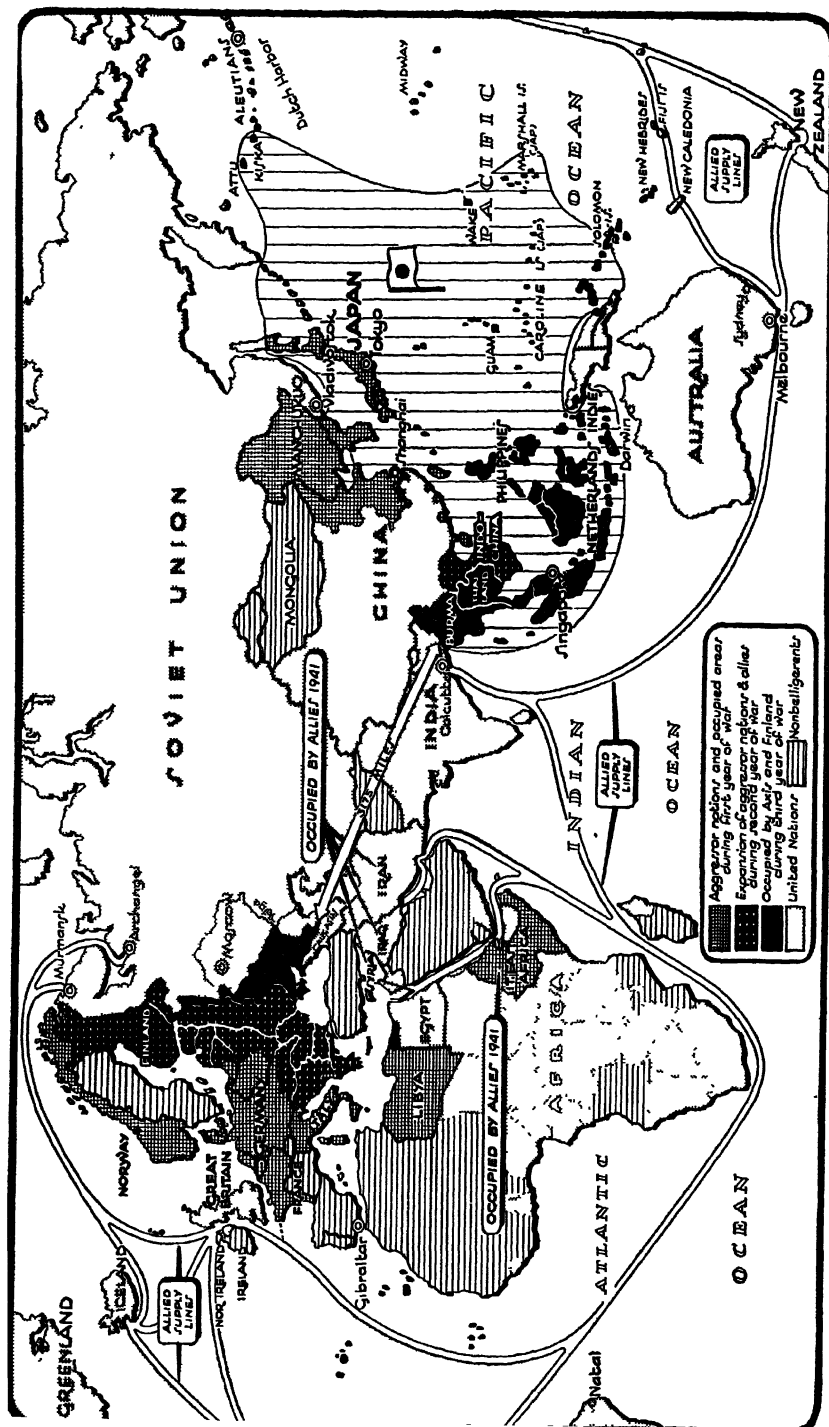
A WORLD MAP on which is shown the approximate location of American forces overseas drives home the fact that the United States is involved in global war. Even though military secrecy demands that not all places be shown, the fact remains nevertheless that American land, sea, and air contingents encircle the earth. They have taken up distant positions. Some they have had to evacuate. Others they hold with constantly mounting strength.

When the Japanese struck at Pearl Harbor, American forces, their size unrevealed, were stationed in Iceland, Greenland, Newfoundland, Bermuda, the West Indian Island bases, British and Dutch Guiana. There were other bodies of troops at Panama, Alaska, Hawaii, the Philippines, Wake, Midway, Guam, and Samoa. All were in a sense on defensive duty, although assignment had been made with the threat of Axis attack in view.

The fact of war altered the picture. Existing garrisons had to be reinforced, where possible, and new

establishments, had to be created. Thus Hawaii and Midway were strengthened successfully. The Philippines, Wake, and Guam were lost. An expeditionary force, with all that means in the way of supplies and equipment, was sent to Australia. New Caledonia was occupied and a base built. Americans reached New Zealand. Flying forces were in the Dutch East Indies and Burma until those areas fell to the advancing Japanese. Other flying forces were stationed in China and India. The list runs long: Iran and Iraq, Eritrea, where a great supply and repair base has been built by the United States, Egypt, Northern Ireland, and Britain.

The significance of these forces overseas could be variously explained. Some were holding forces, mounting the defense. Some were auxiliary to the armies of an ally, as, for example, in China and India. Others were destined for the offensive, and on the growing American army in Britain the tag of striking force was plainly attached.



# 74 AFTER THREE YEARS OF WAR

THE WAR that began in 1939 on the plains of Poland completed its first three years on September 1, 1942. Men took advantage of that anniversary to count the gains and losses in the months of conflict. The gains lay for the most part on the Axis side of the ledger.

Two nations were fighting on the first morning of war. In 1942, one of them, Poland, had disappeared territorially, while Germany meantime had pushed ahead to conquest in nine additional countries. In September 1942, 42 nations were at war, 11 on the Axis side, 31 on the side of the United Nations, a term unknown three years before. The war had touched all six continents. More than two billion of the earth's peoples were in arms.

Axis conquests had overrun vast territories. In Europe more than 1,000,000 square miles were Axis-

ruled. In Asia the total exceeded 1,500,000 square miles. The Axis-conquered populations had swelled to over 300,000,000, more than three times the population of pre-war Germany. Now, as at the start of the war, the Axis fought with the advantage of interior lines of communication, which made for easy shifting of strength to points of attack and defense.

The United Nations, as from the beginning, commanded superior resources, greater man power, greater area. They fought, however, on the periphery, with communication lines long, and often precarious. To win called for greater and greater effort to overcome Axis advantage. Few among the United Nations doubted as the war's third year ended that this effort was being summoned and that ultimately it would make it possible for the United Nations to bear away the victory.





















